The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 16, 1889.

The Week.

ONE of the most encouraging signs of the times is the remarkable and continuing interest in Bishop Potter's sermon. Not only is it condemned by the people from whom one would naturally expect condemnation, and whose condemnation is desirable as a sign of the efficacy of the medicine, but it alone of the literary performances of the centennial is being eagerly bought for perusal and preservation. The demand for the edition printed by the *Evening Post* has been extraordinary, both from individual purchasers and from the trade. Every other utterance of the celebration is fast passing from men's recollection. That the enduring word of the day should be not a tale of material growth, or of increasing power by land or sea, but a solemn reminder of the length to which the Government has strayed away from noble standards and high ideals, is surely a hopeful indication. Bishop Potter's "bugle call" is a very different one from that which President Harrison recommended to his office-seekers two months ago. Their echoes

> "——die in yon rich sky,
> They faint on hill, or field, or river;
> Our echoes roll from soul to soul,
> And grow for ever and for ever."

The movement for the erection of a monument to the late Henry G. Pearson has resulted in the appointment of a committee, of which Mr. George William Curtis is chairman. Subscriptions may be sent to Mr. William Potts, at the office of the Civil-Service Reform Association, 35 Liberty Street, or to any member of the Committee. The monument is intended to do honor not simply to the memory of a brave man, but to the good cause of honest public service in which he died. His papers are now in the hands of his most intimate friend, who, we are glad to hear, will shortly give to the world some account of the difficulties with which he had to contend and of the manner in which he met them, in trying to make a great public office a school of integrity and efficiency.

One of the most striking illustrations of President Harrison's devotion to civil-service reform, and his adherence to the principle expressed in his letter of acceptance, of making "fidelity and efficiency the only sure tenure of office," is to be found in the recent experience of the Norwich (Conn.) Post-office. Under recent Republican administrations this office was the centre for all local partisan work and caucus deliberation. The Postmaster, as the proprietor and active manager of a large and fashionable boot-and-shoe store, devoted his time and attention mainly to his private business, and left the office to be administered by the chief clerk, an ex-soldier of fine military record and good executive ability. No Democrat was ever allowed a place as a clerk or letter-carrier in connection with the office. Under President Cleveland's Administration, the boot-and-shoe merchant was allowed to retain his place until the expiration of his commission, and two months additional to round out the fiscal year, or for a total of a year and four months. The Democratic appointee was a representative of the so-called "working classes," who, commencing life in a subordinate capacity on one of the Sound steamers, had elevated and educated himself in a high degree, and in a Republican city had been elected to an honorable place in the municipal government. Under his administration of the Post-office there were no wholesale removals. The ex-soldier chief clerk continued to be chief clerk for nearly three years, or until his election to and acceptance of another and better paying office—that of City Tax Collector. Of the letter-carriers, those on the best routes—including one colored man—were also not displaced.

Hardly, however, had President Harrison and John Wanamaker taken their seats, than the work of office displacement commenced in Connecticut. Within thirty days from the 4th of March most of the postmasters in the little towns of eastern Connecticut were removed, and also the occupants of two Presidential offices, namely, in Bridgeport and Norwich; the latter fourteen months in advance of the expiration of his commission. His successor—the ex-chief clerk—who had been treated with such consideration, signalized his advent to office by notifying, twenty-four hours before his commission entitled him to enter upon administration, every Democratic employee of the office, with a single exception, that his services would be no longer needed. We think the political records of the country might be searched in vain to find a worse exhibition of indecent partisanship. Its meaning simply is that the spoils system has been reinstated by the Harrison Administration to the fullest extent, and that, in the opinion of members of the Republican party, no citizen differing from them in respect to political issues and candidates is worthy to hold even the humblest position of trust under a common government.

From Washington we receive a very hopeful view of the work of the reorganized Civil-Service Commission. The personnel of the Commission is excellent, and their intentions are of the best, but they are probably going to have, in spite of the Republican platform, a severe tussle with some of the departments. The Interior, for instance, is by no means disposed to surrender the Census Bureau to the reformers, and will hold on to it all the more eagerly because the Railway Mail Service has been taken away from the spoilsmen. This service was, under the Cleveland Administration, the favorite dumping-ground of Congressmen. They used it precisely as they once did the Bureau of Engraving, as a sort of garret in which all their importunate henchmen could be stored at the public expense. When it was taken away from them, of course the retention of the Railway Mail Service became all the more important, and they did manage to retain it. Now that it has gone, the appearance on the scene of the Census Bureau, with a whole army of officials to be appointed, is, of course, a perfect godsend, and they will cling to it like grim death. For the same reason they will resist with great vigor all attempts to bring the public printing-office under the rules. In fact, it may be taken for granted that the more the area covered by the rules is enlarged, the more tenaciously will Congressmen cling to what is left uncovered. They feel like Indians resisting the encroachments of the white men on the reservations, and watching the gradual disappearance of the buffaloes and other large game.

The ballot-reform movement goes bravely forward. Minnesota is one of the latest recruits, its recently adjourned Legislature having passed a law which is a complete adaptation of the Australian system, and which is applicable to all the cities of the State having a population of 10,000 or more. The list of States with the reform laws now stands eight in number as follows, in the order of enactment: Massachusetts, Indiana, Montana, Rhode Island, Wisconsin, Tennessee, Minnesota, and Missouri. We are not informed as to the actual signing of the laws by the Governors in the last two States, but there is no doubt of their signing.

Gov. Hill has for a second time prevented the enactment of a ballot-reform law for this State. The bill which he vetoed on Monday was substantially the measure which he vetoed a year ago, some modifications and changes having been made in it with a faint hope of overcoming his objections. It was an admirable measure a year ago, and an equally admirable one after its alterations. It was the first elaborate measure drawn in this country as an adaptation of the principles of the Australian system to American election methods, and it has within the past year been made the basis and model for the eight bills which have become laws in as many States. Not one of the objections which Gov. Hill makes with such obvious insincerity and at such wearisome length has been raised anywhere else. We shall not dignify those objections with any serious discussion whatever. The *World*, the leading newspaper of the Governor's own party, says that the Governor "has painfully failed to demonstrate that he is something more than a politician and a party servant." In our view this is not the first time that he has failed in the same way; but if his own party is beginning to find him out, there is hope that we may in time be rid of him. It was just as certain when he was reëlected last fall as it is now that there could be no ballot-reform and no

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temperance-reform legislation secured during the three years of his new term; but we were not able to get his Democratic supporters to perceive the fact at that time.

The bill to provide for the better care of the indigent insane in this State has been defeated again in the House, but this time by a narrow majority, while it has passed the Senate. Last year it did not even get out of the Committee to which it had been referred. The friends of the bill have therefore every reason to feel encouraged and to redouble their efforts. All the progress that has been made in bringing this humane measure to the point where it could command forty-five votes in the Assembly has resulted from a persistent dissemination of the facts and the truth among the homes of the people, by which consciences have been stirred and pity has been awakened in the hearts of men and women for a voiceless and most afflicted class. One of the most potent agencies in this work, and one of the most potent appeals ever made in this State or anywhere for the better treatment of the insane, is the report on this subject made by the State Board of Charities to the Legislature last January.

An admirable work, of a more general character, is Mr. W. P. Letchworth's 'The Insane in Foreign Countries,' just published by G. P. Putnam's Sons. If any one wishes to know how slowly the condition of the insane has been improved, how bitter and discouraging at times has been the battle of the few against the many, of humanity against ignorance and superstition, but how complete the victory of humanity has been, these pages, with their ample illustrations, tell. To lose one's mind was, in the olden time, to be "possessed of the devil," but if one had literally been in the devil's possession, he could not have been worse maltreated than the insane were all over the Christian world a century ago. No criminals could be served worse, because nothing can be worse than to be burned alive, as insane persons often were, in order to consume the evil spirit supposed to have found lodgment in the lunatic's person. The contrast between La Salpêtrière in 1792 and Alt-Scherbitz of the present day is as wide as human imagination can conceive. Mr. Letchworth did not apparently have any thought, when making these investigations, of the controversy between State care and county care of the insane, but his work cannot fail to tell strongly in favor of the better system, which must be that which gives the insane the benefit of skilled treatment and all the appliances which science has devised for ministering to the mind diseased.

The description given out of the apparatus to be used in this State under the law requiring executions in future to be by electricity (the first sentence under this law was pronounced on Monday) raises the question whether the makers of that law and the persons who have devised the means for carrying it out are in strict accord. The law was undoubtedly enacted because, with the control now attained over electricity, it was thought that a criminal's death might be brought about instantaneously, and with no possibility of such horrors as come with broken ropes and the other mismanagement so often characteristic of hangings. Every now and then a workman touches a "live" wire, and dies with the touch. It was natural, therefore, to look to electricity as the best means of putting condemned criminals to death. But is it certain that the framers of this law intended that the victim should be seated in a formidable-looking chair, have his feet encased in shoes which contain damp sponges, have another sponge placed on his head, and his head clamped down with metallic bands—all this to be gone through with as the preparation for the death stroke? Was it not believed when the law was passed that the victim would die with the touch of a wire or a knob, and was not the absence of terror-giving paraphernalia and preparation one of the arguments in favor of the new means of death? The first executions in the electric chair will doubtless be very interesting to the scientists who have devised it; but will it not be found that M. de Paris can make better time with his guillotine than these modern electricians with their present system of applying the fluid?

A telegram to the *Times* from North Dakota says that the financiers of that new State intend to adopt some novel features in their Constitution. One of the proposed reforms is to abolish all taxes on cultivated land. Another is to abolish all taxes on personal property. The former is intended as a measure of relief to the farmers, and the latter as a measure of conciliation to the Henry George or single-tax men. If both reforms are adopted, the only taxes will be those on uncultivated land—that is, on property which yields nothing. Regarded as a measure to bring land under some kind of cultivation, we should think that the project might be beneficial, but the amount and kind of cultivation ought to be very carefully prescribed in the Constitution, because the owners of land subject to taxation would be very likely to put in crops of hay or something that would require very little labor, in order to escape taxation. Inasmuch as no land can be taxed until it is surveyed, and as the Government is rather backward in making surveys, it would seem that the new State would run short of funds very soon after the adoption of the new Constitution, if both these reforms should happen to be adopted, unless a third one should be added providing that all public officials should serve without pay. This would have the beneficial effect of reducing the number of office-seekers, and might be worth trying for that reason alone. But we fear that the politicians will not take so large a dose of reform at one sitting.

The *National Economist* is a weekly paper published at Washington city. It calls itself the "official organ of the National Farmer's Alliance and Coöperative Union of America, the National Agricultural Wheel, and the Farmers' and Laborers' Union of America." This is a formidable organship, in name at least, and we have accordingly given close attention to the successive numbers of the *National Economist* in order to learn what its platform might be, but with slight advantage until its last number (May 11) reached us. In this the editor supplies some views of national finance which we judge are to constitute a part, at least, of the policy of the Alliance, the Wheel, and the Union. First, we are to have "expansion" of the circulating medium of the country. Then, in order to prevent corporations, syndicates, combinations, capitalists, and smart people from taking advantage of expansion to swell their own fortunes at the expense of farmers, wheelers, and other innocents, there should be "a regulation in regard to indebtedness, either providing for an increase or diminution of indebtedness to correspond with the value of the circulating medium as regulated by its volume; or, as many now eminent thinkers believe to be the better plan, abolish all laws for the collection of debt." Then, every business that is by its nature a monopoly should be carried on by the Government, and laws should be passed "prohibiting any person or combination of persons from taking advantage of one's hunger, or cold, or sickness to extort money, the same as they now prohibit any person from taking advantage of the physical weakness of another upon the highway at the dagger's point or pistol-mouth to extort money." But this is not all. The laws should recognize no right to "hypothecate lands"—meaning, we suppose, to mortgage them. The "pernicious custom of commerce in real estate" should also be destroyed. With these checks the *National Economist* thinks that "expansion" would be accompanied with beneficial effects that would be permanent and lasting.

Only one thing seems to be lacking in the programme, and that is to get the circulating medium into the right hands when the expansion takes place. Of course the right hands are the Alliance men, the Wheelers, and the Unionists. Congressmen and members of the Legislature and their friends should not have any. Although they have to make the laws by which expansion takes effect, they should be prohibited under the severest penalties from getting any of the new circulating medium. But how is this to be done? We can think of no effectual preventive except public opinion. Public opinion would be so sharpened by a repeal of all laws for the collection of debts, and by putting an end to mortgages and the traffic in real estate, that it might be expected to hold politicians to a severe accountability if any of the new circulating medium should stick to *their* fingers. Before commenting on the underlying principles set out by the *National Economist*, we shall wait to see the details of its plan for bringing about expansion.

The *Tribune* of May 6, in a review of the

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industrial situation of the country, made the following statements, which we commend to the thoughtful consideration of all that large class of persons, more especially the operatives and laborers on farms and in foundries, factories, and mines, who were confidently assured that the defeat of tariff reform and the election of Harrison meant increased wages, larger opportunities for labor, more extended markets, and a general era of abounding prosperity. Said the *Tribune:*

"But the industries are not in so promising a condition as might be desired. A better feeling is reported in the iron market, and nevertheless pig-iron has sold at $16.75 for Southern No. 1, and steel rails at less than $27 at mill. It is frivolous to suppose that pig-iron is going at once to be consumed at a rate of 7,800,000 tons yearly *for domestic iron alone*, with more than half the rail-making capacity idle. The glass industry about Pittsburgh is also depressed, and overproduction is reported. The coal companies find their troubles such that they have suppressed the usual statement of stocks on hand. The situation of the copper business has not been improved by a further fall at London, or that of the leather industry by some recent failures. Of the woollen manufacturers, a considerable proportion are and for months have been idle and waiting. The circulation of a paper among flannel manufacturers, agreeing to close their works for some months, is now reported. Large crops are expected, but to all appearance they will mean prices so low that Western farmers and transporters may require microscopes for the division of their gains."

Had Mr. Cleveland been reëlected, and all the above-cited results happened, what an unanswerable demonstration would have been afforded of the folly and wickedness of free trade!

A fortnightly leaflet called the *Silver Dollar* is published at Cleveland, Ohio. Its issue for May 1 contains a letter from one Ivan C. Michaels, exposing a gigantic "smuggling" operation by which silver is introduced into this country from Mexico in large quantities. At El Paso alone, he says, lead ores containing silver have been sent across the border at the rate of 286 tons daily, while other large quantities have been passed over the border at Eagle Pass, Laredo, and Nogales. This has been done, he says, by "a well-organized pool of smelters," who have made not less than $5,000,000 in the past five years. This, Mr. Michaels insists, ought to be stopped. We think ourselves that there is danger lest these smelters should make too much money, and that means ought to be devised to have the smelting done on the other side of the border, so that the Mexicans should have the profit on their own ores to which they are fairly entitled. But, after the smelting is done, the silver would still be admitted free of duty, although the lead would be taxed two cents per pound, or 69 per cent. ad valorem. We have not yet put any duty on the precious metals, but is it not time to do so? Who is to tell whether a piece of ore when it arrives at our custom-house is lead ore or silver ore? If the usual rule is followed of classifying the article according to the component material of chief value, it will in nine cases out of ten be properly classed as silver. Why not "take the bull by the horns" and put a good thumping duty on silver? In that way our miners would be "protected," and perhaps the Mexicans would be compelled to do their own smelting.

We have been wondering at what point in the centennial proceedings litigation would break out, and we must confess some surprise that, with such opportunities for disputes, the resulting crop of law-suits is so small. The only one that seems likely to engage and hold public attention is that of Dr. Edward C. Towne vs. Hon. Chauncey M. Depew for matter not furnished, but ready to be furnished, by the former to the latter for the purposes of a centennial oration. The difficulty in this case is very plain. Mr. Depew took too superficial a view of the oration and Mr. Towne took too ponderous a one. When Mr. Towne received Mr. Depew's request that he should abstract from the Congressional Library or other sources such facts and suggestions as he (Towne) might think useful for the upbuilding of an oration, he went to work as though the twelve labors of Hercules had been imposed upon him. Thirty-two days he toiled, producing matter that he considers would have been worth $1,500 to Mr. Depew if it had been used. Mr. Depew, on the other hand, took a lighter estimate of the occasion, and, by applying three evenings and a part of Sunday to research among books available in New York, produced the oration which we all know about—"a speech for a day, and a fine one," Mr. Towne admits, "but not a speech for fifty years, nor for all time." Mr. Depew refused to pay Mr. Towne's bill for $800 for matter not used, and Mr. Towne now sues for the full value of the facts collected by him, which he estimates at $1,500, although he was willing to let Mr. Depew have it for about half price on account of old friendship. Mr. Depew, not to be outdone in friendship, was willing to pay Mr. Towne $150, although he considers the work done worth only $25. The case presents such difficulties to a court that it will probably be necessary to send it to a referee to be adjusted on the principles of *quantum meruit*. Who would be a better referee in such a case than Col. Elliott F. Shepard? The Colonel has recently had large experience in collecting poems and opinions regarding George Washington. He knows what it costs to collect them, and how much they are worth when collected. He is also a lawyer by profession and the most religious Republican in the United States. A report made by a referee so variously qualified would undoubtedly be accepted by both parties without cavil.

The close of Parnell's cross-examination has apparently taken all interest out of the proceedings for the English public. What Davitt and other witnesses will have to say will probably throw but little light on the matter for the court. They are mostly rather obscure men, whose doings or sayings only affect the home-rule question in a small degree. If Parnell had not committed the astounding and inexplicable blunder of falsely accusing himself of lying to the House of Commons, his cross-examination would have been a complete failure. What effect this incident has had on public opinion in England it is almost impossible to discover, as the newspapers are precluded by custom, if not by the fear of committing contempt of court, from commenting on the evidence during the trial. The only indications of any moment are Parnell's election by a large majority to life membership in the National Liberal Club, and the bestowal on him, by a decided majority, of the freedom of the city of Edinburgh, an honor rarely accorded, and which in this case has been fiercely opposed. As both these things have happened since the escapade in the court-room, it is to be inferred that, for some reason yet to be revealed, no great importance is attached to it by the Liberals. There are only two conjectures about this reason which seem plausible—one that English Liberals are disposed to acquiesce in an Irish view that resistance, on the part of Irish representatives, to a coercion bill abolishing trial by jury, is entitled to the benefit of the various immoralities of actual war in the field, the most cherished of these being the practice of lying to the enemy, in which even pious commanders indulge freely. The other is, that as Parnell is virtually on trial for promoting murder and outrage, the discovery that he was on one or more occasions simply untruthful, is irrelevant and unimportant. But, no matter what can be said for it, the effect on the general public not engaged in active politics is sure to be bad, and to furnish a means of recovery and escape to a great many of his enemies who were stunned by the Pigott explosion.

We have received several letters complaining of Patrick Egan's appointment to the Chilian Mission, on the ground, among several, that he was an accomplice in the Phœnix Park assassinations. We do not believe that this is true. It is true that he fled to this country soon after, while Treasurer of the National League, but, as well as we can remember, it has not been seriously maintained that he had anything to do with the murders, and no proof of it, or suggestion of proof of it, appeared in the evidence on the trial of the murderers. The appointment is, of course, even without this, a wholly unjustifiable one; but Egan ought not to be sent to Chili with more sins on his head than he fairly deserves to bear. For example, we receive this morning a paragraph from *La Union*, the Clerical organ in Valparaiso, which denounces Egan as "one of the probable conspirators" in the murder of Burke and Cavendish, as "a leader of the Invincibles, or rather Fenians," and ascribes his appointment to Mr. Blaine, who, it says, is "the de-facto President of the United States," and "the ruling power in the United States"; and on him it fastens the blame of sending a murderer to represent the United States Government in Chili. It would be well for Mr. Egan or some of his friends to say what the exact facts of this matter are, before he goes to his post.

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THE LEGISLATIVE REPORT ON TRUSTS.

THE report of the Committee of the State Senate on Trusts has a twofold aspect. The conclusions reached by the majority are clearly justified. They are not different from those of the minority. Both agree that at present no legislation on the subject is desirable or practicable. Both point to the decision of Judge Barrett in the case of the North River Sugar-Refining Company, now under review in the Court of Appeals, as a proper resting-place for the time being. Both approve of that decision as an interpretation of existing law. But the argument and general tone of the majority report seem to find excuses for the Trusts and to minimize their bad fea tures. Stress is laid, for instance, on the evils of competition, as though it were an evil that goods should be supplied to the community at such low prices that the less capable or the less favorably situated producer should be crushed out. The following paragraph embraces, perhaps, all that can be said on this point by any apologist for Trusts:

> "Combination rarely exists except as the result of excessive competition. In the natural condition of affairs the law of supply and demand primarily fixes the reasonable and natural price of every commodity. But, under the stimulus of excessive competition, when each competitor seeks to drive his adversary from the field of trade or transportation, new elements, good and bad, enter the problem, and each rival, not for the public good, but for his own advantage, with rapacious ingenuity lessens the cost to the consumer below the natural and reasonable price; and that he may do this without sacrifice to his capital he increases the product, cheapens the expense of manufacture by cheaper methods and processes, and all with the expectation of ultimately controlling the market and ruining his adversary. But the cheapness of the price is temporary only, for each producer, manufacturer, or common carrier expects, when his competitor is driven off or destroyed, to be able to fix the price, and, for a while at least, to oblige the public to pay a sum in excess of that which, in its normal operations, would be required by the law of supply and demand. Combination to increase the price is often the way of escape sought from this state of affairs. That combination is the natural result of excessive competition there can be no doubt. The history of the Copper Trust or syndicate, the Sugar Trust, the Standard Oil Trust, the American Cotton Oil Trust, the combination of railroads to fix the rates of freight and passenger transportation, all prove beyond question or dispute that combination grows out of and is a natural development of competition, and that in many cases it is the only means left to the competitors to escape absolute ruin."

The fallacy in this argument comes in at the beginning, where it is sought to draw a distinction between the "natural condition of affairs" under the law of supply and demand and what the Committee call "excessive competition." This would lead us to infer that some tribunal or test existed to tell us when competition was natural and when it was excessive. But obviously there is no such test or tribunal. If A is so situated or so unskilful that he cannot compete successfully with B, who shall tell us that B's competition is unnatural? This is a world of competition in both the animal and the vegetable kingdoms, and most of all in the human family. Competition is as fundamental a fact as population or gravitation. It can no more be suppressed than gravitation. It may be retarded and counteracted for a time in particular places and as to particular commodities; but as to all things where the sources of supply are not strictly limited by nature or by statute, it will eventually break down every possible combination. So far we agree with the Committee. So, too, we agree with them that competition is the inciting cause of combination; but here again we must reject the phrase "excessive competition" as misleading, since every competition is excessive which prevents any man from making a living profit.

The fundamental question is whether competition or combination is of an anti-social character, whether the one or the other promotes the *salus populi*, or the greatest good of the greatest number. If there is no standard or authority to draw the line between competition which is excessive and that which is not, then some other test must be looked for. Competition results in cheapness. It has no other end or aim. All its evils, if there be any, take the form of offering more goods for less money, or, since money is a somewhat confusing element, we will say more satisfaction to the buyer for less of his labor. Combination aims to get more and to give less. If it fails of this, in any case, it fails of its object.

Now, which of the two is anti-social in its aims and tendencies? Which confers the greatest good upon the greatest number? It is the common understanding of mankind, and it may easily be put in the form of a demonstration, that competition does this, because the buyers outnumber the producers (that is, the proprietors of production) by millions. It is an artifice much employed in tariff discussion to say that the proprietors furnish employment to labor, and therefore deserve special consideration, but it would not be seriously contended that society should for that reason support works that are badly placed or unskilfully managed. Now, there is no way to tell when works are badly placed or unskilfully managed except by seeing whether they can stand alone. If they have to be braced up by tariff laws or by Trusts, they are a tax upon the community, and therefore anti-social.

The fallacy on which we have commented, crops out again near the conclusion of the report, where the Committee say that while the Trust is full of dangers, "it is not of necessity a monopoly, nor inconsistent with the public advantage within certain reasonable limitations." Reasonable limitations are as little susceptible of determination as excessive competition is. It was not necessary for the Committee to make apologies for the Trusts. They are quite able to take care of themselves. What the public had a right to expect from the Committee, if it had no legislation to recommend (and we agree that none is now necessary), was a plain statement of facts and principles showing where the best interests of society lie. This we are sorry not to find in the report.

POLITICAL GENTLEMEN.

WE are greatly afraid that the performances of Messrs. Robert Ray Hamilton, Hamilton Fish, and Ernest H. Crosby at Albany will end by making the public doubt whether there can be such a thing as "the gentleman in politics." Forty years ago, when corruption and jobbery at Albany began to be very ostentatious, people used to console themselves with the idea that they could cure the trouble by getting "gentlemen" and "scholars" to go into politics, and show the common men the more excellent way. Since then the remedy has been tried more or less, but to say it has not succeeded is to speak mildly. The idea of its proponents was, that although the gentlemen and scholars in a legislature might be a handful, and might be rather artless in practical politics, the effect of their pure example on the hardened offenders around them would be in the highest degree salutary. This result certainly has not been attained at Albany. We have heard of no corruptionist or jobber who has been shamed into virtue, or even external decency, by contemplating the political walk and conversation of Mr. Crosby, or Mr. Hamilton, or Mr. Fish.

Whether an Albany legislator is virtuous or not can only be ascertained by seeing how he behaves about this city. He may be pure and upright about everything else in the State for twenty years, and yet, until he is called on to legislate about New York city, nobody can say with certainty what kind of stuff he is made of. This city furnishes the strong temptation before which even heroic legislators feel their weakness. Even Hamilton Fish, jr., might have passed as a man of adamantine morality, if he had not been called on to provide New York city with a copious supply of water. As soon as he turned his attention to this great problem, there sat Satan waiting for him at all the leading springs in the Croton Valley. His confrères, Ernest Crosby and Ray Hamilton, have now much the same story to tell. Mr. Hamilton was led astray by the practical men some years ago, but repented and has since then, and until very recently, been leading a very respectable life. Mr. Crosby, too, has on the subject of liquor been a very pillar of the church. Satan disguised as a liquor-dealer was never able to make the smallest impression on him, and, indeed, was equally unsuccessful in the character of a corrupter of the suffrage. But no sooner did the Tempter come in the shape of a nice "deal," with something in it for the Republican Boys in the city, than both of these gentlemen surrendered at once, and asked simply to be shown the job they had to do in order to do it. They were evidently in the thick of the whole business, and knew all its ins and outs, and were not in the least nauseated. Mr. Crosby found the Police Justices Bill too much for him; but the only sacrifice he would make was to refrain from voting upon it.

There is an old French proverb, doubtless familiar in the original to our new Minister to France, which says that "a gentleman is always a gentleman, and always shows himself to be such in danger and necessity." Evidently, however, this was founded on a different experience from ours, for our gentlemen in politics are only gentlemen now and

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then, and only show themselves to be such when it will not "hurt the party." This is not what their friends calculated on when they rejoiced over the entrance into political life of young men of good education and good social and family traditions. The experience the country has had, in fact, in this matter during the past six or seven years will dispose a greater and greater number to concur with Mr. Moorfield Story of Boston, in the opinion that our "scholars and gentlemen" can do far more for the community as observers and writers and speakers than as office-holders, and that their entrance into the political arena as candidates for place is pretty sure to rob them in the long run of the very things which make them, either in politics or anywhere else, valuable to the community. Nor is this all. As the Roman philosopher has observed: "The worst corruption is the corruption of the good." The worst example is the example of the virtuous man who has lost his virtue, and of the temperance orator who occasionally gets drunk. Consequently the spectacle of a Crosby, or a Fish, or a Hamilton rollicking with the Boys in the middle of a "deal," does infinitely more mischief than the worst excesses of an O'Brien or a Brodsky.

WANTON REMOVALS AND VOTE-BUYING.

THERE is a paragraph in a report of Mr. Depew's recent conversation with the *World* which deserves attention and comment. It is this:

"This generation has taken care of slavery and eradicated what was the greatest evil of the century, and it has absorbed 14,000,000 of immigrants. That we have received in that enormous population paupers, criminals, lepers, Anarchists, and Communists is true; but the benefits derived in the settlement and development of the country, the building of the public works, the creation of States, the vigor and progress attained by the enormous aggregation of virtue, sobriety, and citizenship that accompanied it, are such that the bad element has been nullified. That we need to legislate to prevent the introduction of mendicants, diseased persons, and paupers goes without saying."

What is true and striking in regard to the whole country is in one sense especially so as applied to the city of New York, and should make foreign critics more tolerant in dealing with defects in our municipal affairs. This city has been, and is, the mixing place of all races and nationalities, of all creeds and systems, religious and political. The overflowing of Europe, Asia, and Africa has come hither and found a home. With the virtue of the Old World has come the vice; with the riches, the poverty. The records of the Department of State clearly disclose that from European States, and notably from Switzerland, have, by governmental effort, been dumped into New York vice, pauperism, idiocy, insanity, and hopeless alcoholism. The sediment, the incurable, of such an immigration tend to remain in great cities.

All of the men over twenty-one years of age become voters in New York as soon as they are Federal citizens and have got a residence, and in many Western States they can vote before they are naturalized. Thousands of naturalization papers, for voting purposes, have been corruptly obtained by purchase before the end of a five years' continuous residence; and even when the residence has been genuine, there has not been that adequate inquiry into the character of the applicant which the naturalization statute requires. Having become a citizen and a resident, every man over twenty-one — practically every one, however dishonest, or vicious, or criminal—can vote, and there is such voting every autumn. No civil-service law or theory prevents the removal each year of members of the New York Assembly and every two years of New York Senators. Mayors and Aldermen come and go with startling rapidity. Even a member of Congress has only two years of life. Voting is a great industry and a *paying* industry. Every recurring autumn finds New York city upset by an election, when vast sums of money change hands.

The theory of these short terms for *elective* offices is, that it is good for the public weal that official power be frequently surrendered to the voters from which it came, in order that they may commend or condemn the conduct of the official. It is under such conditions and out of such materials that the municipal government of New York is made. Has any other great city to deal with similar elements on the basis of such universal suffrage and yearly voting? Defective administering of the details of government is always the price to be paid for representative institutions, universal suffrage, short terms of office, and all the countless blessings of individual, political, civil, and religious liberty. Defective pavements, dirty streets, dilapidated docks, a wretched hackney cab service, and a general absence of the conveniences of daily life at a cheap price to be found in all great European cities, New Yorkers have. It is no doubt very bad and very hard that this city is not free to work out the tremendous problem without the interference and control of the countrymen assembled annually at Albany; but so it is. The buying and selling of votes abound; false counting of ballots flourishes; officials receive "cash down" to shut their eyes to violations of law; pious men furnish the money or inducement to unregenerate officials and to voters to betray the trust they have undertaken—but is that peculiar to New York? Has not the Department of Public Works in London been proved guilty of corrupt practices as bad as anything proved since Tweed's day on our New York Department, even although London does not have to contend with universal suffrage, yearly voting, and an annual upsetting of political affairs? London is, in its municipal affairs, really in the hands of a single race and creed, and that an English race and a Church of England creed, which makes the problem of government so much more simple than in New York. How do Englishmen get on when trying to deal with the government of Irishmen? And yet, what Englishman thinks of or gives due weight to all these things when writing or speaking of the municipal affairs of New York?

Mr. Depew is right: New York has reason for self-congratulation and hope. The protection of life and property in this city during the three days of the recent celebration is a *fact*, whose significance cannot be obscured any more than the incident that so large a part of the rank and file of the policemen who gave that protection were men of Irish descent, and the very same sort of men whom Tory politicians in England say cannot be trusted in Ireland as they are trusted in New York. Thus to do justice to New York is not inconsistent with, or a betrayal of, pressing reforms which Mr. Depew emphasized in these telling words:

"That we need to improve our civil service, and by it improve our public service, is also unquestionably true. That we need to prevent the corrupt use of money in our elections, is the burning necessity of the time. That we want ballot reform so that the independence of the voter can be beyond reach of interference, is also beyond doubt. That we need high license and a proper regulation of the liquor traffic, every right-minded person admits."

Mr. Depew did not say, but it will be helpful when he does say, and keeps on saying, that the way to stop the indiscriminate and wanton removals from office such as Harrison is now making, and to put an end to the buying of votes and offices which both parties attempted last November, is, for those who really wish to accomplish those great reforms, to cease, as Republicans, insisting that Democrats have been and are solely responsible for the two evils, and for Democrats to stop putting all the blame on Republicans. Never mind now about Jefferson or Jackson or Cleveland, on the one side, or Lincoln or Grant or Harrison, on the other side. One is as much tarred with the dishonor as the other. Both sides have endeavored to beg and expend all the money they could get in the buying of votes. Cleveland turned out officials just as Harrison is turning them out. The thing to be done in the near future is to suppress the twin evils—wanton removals and vote-buying.

CHANGES IN DRINKING-HABITS.

No feature of the centennial celebration attracted more general attention than the small amount of drunkenness in the great crowds. The streets were packed with people all day long, day after day, and yet cases of intoxication were so infrequent that they attracted attention by their very rarity. "It can fairly be said," remarks the *Examiner*, a journal representing the Baptist denomination, "that the city during the three days was remarkably free from drunkenness. The saloons were all open, and it is said that they did a large business. However that may be, the fact is certain that there were very few signs of intoxication. The remark is now made constantly by people who were about the streets for hours on every one of the three days, that they did not see a single person under the influence of liquor. This also is excellent evidence that the people at large are gifted with good sense, and know how to manage themselves even in strange cities and on gala days; and it may even be fairly said to show that they have in this respect made great advances over the people of 100

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There is no doubt that the *Examiner* is entirely right in the opinion that, in respect of self-control, the American people of 1889 are superior to those of 1789, and that there is consequently less of drunkenness, and of the disorder which springs from drunkenness, on a gala occasion now than in the days of our great-grandfathers. Those were the days when people drank strong liquors, and were expected to get drunk on them, and did not suffer for getting drunk; when ministers and deacons went from the examination of a theological student's orthodoxy, and his consequent fitness to become a pastor, to a dinner where the board was graced with brandy and rum—"good old New England rum"; when the glass of toddy was religiously presented the young pastor at the house of every parishioner on whom he called; when ministers occasionally became intoxicated without incurring dismissal; and when public men of the highest standing might slip under the table at a banquet without forfeiting the confidence of their constituents. In those days tens and hundreds of thousands of people could not have assembled and shown only a rare case of drunkenness.

The change is in part due to the growth of the habit of total abstinence among the people. It no longer provokes criticism, or even causes remark, if a gentleman does not drink wine at a public dinner; society recognizes that it is a personal question, about which others have no right to concern themselves. But this is only a single element in the change, and we doubt if it is the most important. There were plenty of people in the centennial throng who are in the habit of drinking liquor of some kind, and who did drink during the days of the celebration. The point is that they did not get drunk; and the chief reason for this undoubtedly was, that they generally did not drink the more intoxicating kinds of liquor. The introduction of lager beer in the United States has "switched off" a large proportion of drinkers from "hard" liquors to malt. The man who years ago would take two or three glasses of whiskey, and get "fighting drunk" on them, now takes two or three mugs of beer, and does not get drunk at all.

These changes in drinking habits are not confined to the United States. They are hardly less noticeable in Great Britain. In recently presenting the budget to the House of Commons, the Chancellor of the Exchequer called attention to the fact that during the last quarter of a century there has been a great, a material, and a striking fall in the consumption of spirituous liquors, as shown by the receipts from the excise tax. "I have good news again for the friends of the temperance cause," he said, "though it has made and continues to make a gap in the receipts of the Exchequer. This great revenue does not grow in proportion to population. It might be thought, now that we are at a critical moment in the revival of trade, that this would again lead to an increase in the revenue from drink. But it has not done so." He proceeded to show in detail that spirituous drinks have fallen more and more behind for the last dozen years; that a corresponding change has gone on in wines, so that more than half the wine now consumed belongs to the lighter kinds, while formerly the lighter kinds were only one-third of the whole; that since 1876 the total consumption of wine has sunk from 17,000,000 gallons to 13,000,000 gallons, while the total consumption of the lighter kind of wines has risen from 6,000,000 gallons to 8,000,000 gallons; that less wine of all kinds was consumed last year than in the previous year; and that the total drink revenue last year showed a falling off, despite the increase in population, the sole increase being in beer, and that increase only two-thirds of 1 per cent.

Such facts show conclusively that in both Great Britain and the United States the number of people who abstain entirely from the use of liquor is steadily increasing, and that those who use liquor of any sort are more and more inclined to drop rum, whiskey, and brandy for the lighter wines, ale, and beer. That these changes in habit have already gone far enough to produce noticeable effects, is demonstrated by the wonderful sobriety of the recent vast crowds in this city. Public opinion now frowns on drunkenness, and a man suffers serious harm who allows himself to be overcome by liquor. The next step should be the organizing of a public sentiment which will suppress the saloon by making it disreputable for a man to enter such a place. That the next centennial celebration will find the United States a nation of total abstainers, is in the highest degree improbable; but it is not too much to hope that it may find the country, although consuming a large amount of liquor, freed from the demoralizing influences of "stand-up drinking" in rum-shops.

SHALL WE HAVE A CORRECT CENSUS?

THE opinion expressed by us some time since that the appointment of Robert P. Porter to the Superintendency of the Census was in the nature of a public calamity, has since found confirmation in a general concurrence of the most intelligent sentiment of the country, and also in the unconcealed rejoicing on the part of the representatives of the most extreme tariff fanatics. The selection undoubtedly implies just what the country can least afford. That the President of a party whose chief political capital is denunciation of every economic and fiscal principle which England favors, should find no native-born citizen fit to number the American people in their centennial census, take an inventory of their goods and chattels, and collect the evidence for making accurate deductions respecting almost every question pertaining to their social life and condition, and should select for the superintendence of this great task a hap-hazard Englishman, a sort of modern Dugald Dalgetty, ready to fight for any cause that pays, is itself a circumstance that would seem sufficiently potent once more to inspire with life the dry bones of the old Know-Nothing party.

But this is not the worst. For although Mr. Porter has written to the New York *Sun* that "he means to take an absolutely fair and honest census" (and by so doing admits that his appointment invites public distrust), it is by no means certain that he is capable of achieving any such result. There is a deal of truth and common sense in the remark of Emerson, "that the eye sees only what it brings to itself to see." But what will the eyes of the men appointed under the dictation of the American Iron and Steel Association bring to themselves to see on the question of wages, and the influence of taxation for private rather than public purposes? The Chicago *Inter-Ocean* has already definitely indicated the line of vision they are expected to follow by declaring that "now"—that is, under Porter—"the collection and publication of exact data relative to our industries will prove the efficacy of a protective tariff, and finally and for ever damn the Mills Bill."

Again, the Cleveland *Leader* (a high protectionist paper) is delighted with the appointment of Porter, because all citizens are either "protectionists or free-traders," and the President was instructed to appoint a protectionist. It adds that "the free-trade editors see that some of their principal falsehoods are certain to be exposed by an honest census," which is equivalent to an assertion that the census as taken under the supervision of Gen. Walker was not honest, although they never thought so before; and that under Porter we are to have new theories of statistics and new methods, with a view of knocking out the foundation from under the hitherto assumed facts on which the wicked free-traders have based their arguments. Possibly Porter will prove equal to the task of invalidating the commandment which says, "Thou shalt not steal," on the averment of the United States Supreme Court that, "to lay with one hand the power of the government on the property of the citizen, and with the other to bestow it upon favored individuals to aid private enterprises, is no less robbery because it is called taxation." If he can at the same time prove to the workingman that the existing tariff has been enacted mainly for his benefit, his success is assured.

What will the eyes of the census enumerators at the South bring themselves to see, under the inspiration of those Republican leaders who propose to put the next Congressional and Presidential election under the control of the Federal Executive? A reduction of the enumeration of the people of the South, especially of the colored element, to an extent of 10 or 15 per cent., thereby reducing Congressional representation from that portion of the country and helping to perpetuate the political supremacy of the Republican party, would not be a very difficult thing to do, but an exceedingly difficult thing to remedy. The work of the Census Bureau in this respect was brought under suspicion in 1880, and nothing but public confidence in the integrity of Gen. Walker, fortified as it was by a recount in some districts, was effectual to dispel it. That no such confidence will be extended to Mr. Porter he may

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feel sure. All the indications are that his appointment was made in conformity with and as an essential part of a scheme to subordinate his great work to political and selfish motives—to help fasten a load of unjust taxation upon the whole people, and possibly defraud a portion of them of their just political privileges. We accordingly heartily join with the Springfield *Republican* in the hope that the Senate, at its next session, will insist on intrusting the management of the census to other and better hands, "and reject Porter's appointment even at the risk of delaying the work of preparation."

A MEDICAL PRACTICE SCHOOL.

BALTIMORE, May 10, 1889.

NOT the least interesting feature in the scheme of university education planned by Johns Hopkins of Baltimore was his provision for a medical school in connection with a general hospital, to be built and organized on the most approved methods known to modern science. The importance to medical education throughout the country of the opening of this hospital—the avant-courrier of a great medical school—may be seen by the following quotations from two recognized medical authorities:

"It is disgraceful, and yet it happens constantly, that men are graduated by prominent medical schools and colleges in this country, without ever having listened to an abnormal heart-beat, seen a case of measles, or assisted at an obstetrical case."

"In the munificence of Mr. Hopkins we have the prophecy and possibility of a reform in medical education which will be general in its character and permanent in its results. Incorporated into the University as an integral part of its system of education, the Faculty of Medicine will be required to subject its students to the same tests as are required in the other departments. . . . There can be no doubt that a school thus organized and conducted would at first repel medical students; . . . it is equally certain that in the near future such a school would be the centre of attraction to the profession in all parts of the country, and would assume a *national* character and importance."

The inception, organization, and christening of such a "national" institution would seem, therefore, events of national interest. That they have been such, the presence at the hospital's formal opening, May 7, of distinguished medical men from all parts of the country testified, while cordial words from many not present evidenced the universal opinion of the profession that Baltimore ought to become "the seat of a school of medicine such as does not now exist in this country."

Mr. Francis T. King, President of the Board of Trustees, made the opening address on behalf of the Board, and reported as a result of their stewardship the seventeen buildings now finished, and the sum, in addition to the trust originally received, of $113,000 surplus income reinvested. Dr. John S. Billings, U. S. A., as a medical critic, demonstrated the special adaptability of the hospital structures for two distinct lines of work—*i. e.*, the care and cure of the sick, and the education of trained practitioners and investigators—making frankly prominent the great need of development in this latter field of medical effort. As acting-chairman of the Hospital Board and President of the University, Mr. Daniel C. Gilman explained the close connection that has always existed between the discoveries of pure science and the practical amelioration of human pain—a relation that becomes still more intimate where research and application go hand in hand and are encouraged by adequate endowment.

The lay public may here fairly ask why the "opening" of this particular hospital, with less than two hundred free beds, should be held to mark an era in medical education. The answer to this query can best be given, first, by an account of the growth of the hospital *idea* as finally embodied in the present group of buildings, and secondly by an outline of the plan of organization which gives the hospital organic relation to the University, so that, in the words of Dr. Billings, "the true university spirit will pervade, stimulate, and encourage the hospital work."

The embryo which has developed into such an institution first appears in a letter of Mr. Hopkins himself, addressed to his Trustees in March, 1873, in which he directs that the plan they select must permit of symmetrical additions to the buildings first constructed, so as ultimately to care for 400 patients, while in construction and arrangement "it must compare favorably with any other institution of like character in this country or in Europe." The majority of the patients were, "without regard to sex, age, or color," to receive medical or surgical treatment free of charge. There must be, in connection with the hospital, a training-school for female nurses, and a home for convalescent patients in the country. Finally, "*in all arrangements in relation to this hospital, bear constantly in mind that it is my wish and purpose that the institution shall ultimately form a part of the Medical School of the University.*" Mr. Hopkins died shortly afterwards, and in 1875 the Trustees directed their building committee "to confer with five distinguished physicians . . . who have made hospitals a special study." The physicians selected were men of reputation from Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Washington, and New Orleans, who consequently had grappled with the same general problems, but with varied conditions of climate, temperature, and types of disease. Elaborate plans were furnished, which, printed in book form, were sent to specialists all over the civilized world for suggestions and improvement.

At that time the main question for city hospitals was the choice between the pavilion system, which admits buildings of two or more stories, permanently constructed (of which the Herbert Hospital in England was instanced as "a good modern type"), and the barrack system of one-story structures, destructible in whole or in part, which had been successfully used in our civil war, but of which no prominent example then existed. With rare good sense, the Trustees expressed the belief that there should be "some general principles of hospital hygiene and of hospital treatment, fixed and immutable," and that their aim was to adopt that system, pavilion, barrack, "or a selection of the good features of each," which would result in a harmonious whole, specially adapted for the advanced educational work contemplated. Both the Trustees and their medical advisers felt that the plan of the hospital must depend upon the nature and degree of its relations to the Medical School of the University, and that its value as a pathological department of a leading educational institution should be the pivot on which both plan and organization must turn. All realized that an opportunity had presented itself to form a medical practice school which, being financially independent, could afford to consult the welfare of students and the advance of knowledge. Thus fortunate in its freedom, it was clear that the Johns Hopkins Medical School should strive for "quality, not quantity; the seal of its diploma should be a guarantee that its possessor is not only a well-educated physician, but that he has learned to think and investigate for himself, and is therefore prepared to undertake, without danger of failure from not knowing how to begin, the study of the many problems still awaiting solution."

Such being the united lay and professional interpretation of Mr. Hopkins's wishes, let us see how the Trustees have carried them out, and whether this hospital can justly claim the title given it by an eminent London surgeon, "the hospital of the century."

The grounds of the hospital, including four entire blocks (about fourteen acres), through which streets have been permanently closed, are one hundred feet above tide-water. The buildings are of brick, with trimmings of dark blue-stone. These include an administration building, apothecary's building, kitchen, laundry, bath-house, nurses' home, male pay ward, female pay ward; an octagon ward, two-storied; three common wards, one story; an isolating ward, with twenty rooms for patients; nurses' rooms, bath-rooms, diet kitchen, etc., amphitheatre, dispensary, and the pathological building. All these are widely separated, and, with the exception of laundry, autopsy buildings, chapel, and greenhouse, are connected by means of covered corridors one story high, while the top of these corridors forms an open terrace walk on a level with the ward floors. One-half the free wards, those on the south side of the central garden, are still to be built, as needed. Every appliance and arrangement that the skill, ingenuity, and experience of modern science in Europe and America can suggest has been availed of in the plan and finish. Intelligent care of the sick, absolute freedom from contagion, convenience for study and research, and facilities for demonstration and instruction are all provided for, so that a combination of advantages for patient, student, and physician is here attained to an extent not possible in other less extensive or less generously endowed institutions. An elaborate system of air and water-pipes, flues, shafts, and valves, with independent coils and cocks for each ward, permit at will ideal conditions of ventilation and temperature. One hundred and fifty degrees of Fahrenheit can rapidly be changed to the temperature of the external air; nay, more, in each ward the air surrounding every pair of beds can be regulated separately to meet the needs of different cases, while foul air can be taken off from the top or the bottom of a ward. The nurses' home has room for sixty women.

Provision is made for thirty resident students in addition to the medical staff. Besides the ordinary hospital ward service, these favored students will have such practice and instruction as comes through a large dispensary and well-equipped pathological laboratories, ample space existing for work in every branch of pathological investigation. When we are told that only about 5 per cent. of the graduates of the eighty medical schools of the United States have "had any opportunities worth speaking of to study and treat disease in the living man," we can understand why those members of the profession who have its honor, as well as the increase of knowledge and the decrease of suffering, at heart, have looked with hopeful and cordial expectation to the opening of the Johns Hopkins Hospital and the establishment of its Medical School—that school which is to be the link between it and the University, between research and practice, between knowledge and mercy.

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"From the time of the first announcement of the Hopkins bequests to the present, scientific men all over the world have been keenly interested in the plans and methods of carrying them out. Whenever and wherever the problems of higher medical education have been discussed within the past ten years, there has been speculation as to the probable course of the Johns Hopkins Medical Department and the influence it would have on the standard. . . . Some of this influence has been even exerted in advance, . . . for the plans of this hospital have stimulated changes in some of our best medical schools, and have been copied . . . in some of our latest hospitals."

To those fortunate students who, "with a sound basis of preliminary education, . . . and with acquirements but little below those for granting the B.A. degree in the University, when they commence," can prove their fitness for admission to its wards and laboratories, the Hopkins Hospital offers lavish opportunities for study in the wide field of medicine. Its opening and the establishment of the Medical School promise an advance all along the line of higher medical education. Its scheme for investigation and practice brings into due relation the many paths that open up to the earnest student and lover of mankind an approach to the true anthropology of the future, "the culmination of finite knowledge." We can vaguely measure the value of the heritage of the intelligent medical student of this generation, under advantages like those of the Hopkins bequest. It is because the men who control it have so far shown due appreciation of its capabilities, opportunities, and responsibilities, that the medical profession has wished it Godspeed.

In the selection of officers, the Trustees are pursuing the same policy which, within the first decade of its existence, gave the work of the University a world-wide reputation. The cosmopolitan character of the few appointments so far made on the hospital staff stamps the national character of the institution. Men and women in the prime of life, they have drawn their past training and experience from the best universities, hospitals, and training-schools for nurses in this country and in Europe, and have willingly left fields of usefulness in Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Chicago, Canada, and London to take earnest part in the building up of this new clinical department of a great medical school that is to be.

BOULANGER IN ABSENTIA.

PARIS, *May* 2.

"EXIT BOULANGER." The drama which has kept France and Europe attentive for several months, has been interrupted in the most unexpected manner. The hero is gone, is no longer on the stage. This *coup de théâtre* has taken everybody by surprise, and, for a few hours at least, the curtain has fallen.

In order fully to understand this surprise, we must go back to the last election in Paris, which took place on the 27th of January. The Government had opposed Boulanger with all its power, and he was elected by an enormous majority; 250,000 electors had cast their votes for him, and, for every three men you met in the streets, you could safely assert that two had voted for the "General." When the result was proclaimed, Paris seemed mad with joy, and people said to themselves, "There is no Government left (*il n'y a plus de gouvernement*)." I will not now analyze the reasons of the Government's defeat. It is enough to say that at the moment when General Boulanger was daily attacking the Constitution and urging its revision, the then Prime Minister, M. Floquet, wished to force the Chambers to unite in convention, and spoke himself of revising a Constitution which it was his duty to defend. He acted like a fireman who should himself set fire to the house. The absurdity of such a policy was felt even by the Radicals, and, on some trivial question, the Cabinet was upset, and the section of the Republicans which had opposed M. Floquet's revision scheme had to form a new administration. This administration had in reality no programme: its only mission was to destroy Boulanger—"delenda est Carthago." Jules Ferry, who, ever since the Tonkin affair, has been so unpopular that he cannot himself be the head of a Cabinet, has been, in reality, behind the scenes, the inspirer of the new policy: the present Ministers may be considered as his Ministers. Jules Ferry had long ago declared war on General Boulanger, had called him a "Saint-Arnaud de café concert," had opposed his own unpopularity to the General's popularity, had especially turned the sentiment of the Senate against a man whom he represented as a future dictator.

The Senate has many attributions. Some rather vague articles of the constitutional laws give it the right to erect itself into a high court of justice, and to judge the President, the Ministers, and generally all persons who have endangered the security of the State and entered into any plots against the State; when the plot has become an *attentat*—that is to say, when there has been what our law calls a beginning of execution (*commencement d'exécution*), to assume all the rights of a court of law, to make rules for the procedure, the interrogation of witnesses, etc. As it is distinctly said in the constitutional law that the Senate has such rights only in case there has been an *attentat*, the Senate, instead of contenting itself with passing rules for a state trial, made a law which organized its own powers in view of such a trial, and, after this law was voted, it was sent to the Chamber of Deputies, in order to become a complete law. It was passed by the Chamber of Deputies, and it must be well understood that the high court of justice, with all its machinery of procedure, all its definitions of competency, everything, in fact, that constitutes its mode of action and its power, is acting in accordance not with any interior or traditional rules of the Senate, but with a law hastily passed for the special case which is now in view.

It is not the first time that our High Chamber has sat as a court of justice: the Peers of the Restoration judged Marshal Ney, but Marshal Ney had clearly committed an *attentat*, he was guilty of high treason. Sent against Napoleon, who was returning from Elba, he joined Napoleon, though he had promised Louis XVIII. to bring him back as his prisoner. The Peers of 1830 had to pass judgment on the Ministers of Charles X.; but these Ministers had signed the famous *ordonnances*, which were a violation of the *Charte*—they had not only plotted such a violation, they had accomplished it. I might cite other state trials under Louis Philippe, under the Republic of 1848, under the Second Empire; all these trials were always determined by positive deeds, by crimes, by open acts of rebellion. The last occasion was the death of the journalist Victor Noir, who was shot by Prince Charles Bonaparte, towards the end of the Second Empire.

In the present instance, it is difficult to understand why the Senate has been constituted as a high court of justice. There is nothing in what we know which can justify the convocation of an exceptional tribunal. We have a complete arsenal of laws, which seem quite sufficient in case M. Boulanger or his friends have done anything in view of corrupting the army, or the public functionaries, or the police. As for their attacks on the present members of the Government, or the Chamber, or their open desire to revise the Constitution, we see nothing illegal in them. The country has been covered with cheap pictures of Gen. Boulanger, but every Frenchman has a right to send his photograph or his picture to the seven millions of French electors. Paulus, the café-concert singer, has popularized the name of Gen. Boulanger, in singing "En revenant de la revue," and "C'est Boulange, Boulange, lange, c'est Boulange qu'il nous faut," but Paulus has also sung songs on Gambetta; he may tomorrow give us another political lesson in music. When M. Thévenet, a Lyons lawyer, who has become Minister of Justice in the present Cabinet, sent for M. Bouchez, the Procureur-Général, and asked him to sign a report which was to be addressed to the Chamber of Deputies, in order that Boulanger might be arrested, M. Bouchez asked, not unnaturally, to see the documents which had formed the basis of this report. The documents, M. Thévenet said, were kept in a room in the palace of the Minister of Justice; the keys of the room could not be found; M. Bouchez was pressed to sign, and he preferred to resign. A successor was found for him in the person of a M. Quesnay de Beaurepaire (who has written some novels under the name of Glouvet). It was during this interim that Boulanger was advised that the Minister of Justice would ask the Chamber for permission to arrest him; and, before the warrant could be issued, he had just time to leave Paris and to flee to Brussels.

Nothing can equal the astonishment produced by this flight. Paris is only five hours distant from Brussels, and for days there was an incessant exodus of visitors to Brussels. The tranquil little city was becoming the centre of a political agitation, and Boulanger, feeling that he was becoming embarrassing to the Belgians, who are a neutral nation, and obliged by their neutrality to be on their guard on all sides, chose to go to England freely, so as not to be obliged to go unwillingly a few weeks afterwards. What will be the effect of his absence? We have many proverbs which answer this question: "Les absens ont toujours tort," "Loin des yeux, loin du cœur," etc. I have from the beginning felt that the flight of General Boulanger would greatly hurt his cause. If he had taken hold of the popular imagination, it was in great part because he was a soldier, a young general. His biographies, spread over the country by millions, represented him as a dashing soldier, on his black charger on the battle-field, on a barricade, always in a heroic attitude. He was the new Bonaparte, Bonaparte on the bridge of Arcole. He was destined by Providence to rid the country of the swarm of lawyers, of *avocats*, of politicians, to chase the money-changers from the temple, to give us a strong, authoritative, energetic Government. The idol of the popular mind has lost something of its prestige.

In vain does Boulanger say, to explain his flight, that he was and is still ready to appear before his natural judges—before the judges of the correctional courts, or before the jury of the Court of Assizes; that he only refuses to appear before the Senate, as the Senate is composed of his political enemies. When you play for such high stakes as the government of a great country, something must be risked; and I cannot help thinking that, in his own interest, M. Boulanger would have done better to allow his enemies to imprison him, and to make him stand a solemn trial before the Senate. If there

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is nothing in the evidence which will be brought against him to prove that he attempted to change the government by violent means; if he had been face to face with his accusers, and had been able to show and to prove to them that he had done unto them what they had done unto other governments or administrations, the Senate, even as it is now composed, would have found it very difficult to convict him. And if he had been unjustly convicted, there would have been a great popular reaction in his favor.

"L'absence est le plus grand des maux." The public mind is always timid; the popular imagination which was a few months ago surrounding the image of Gen. Boulanger with ideas of courage, of heroism, surrounds it now with mysterious ideas of treason, of corruption. "Where does the money come from?" You hear this question on all lips. People are beginning to inquire into the budget of Gen. Boulanger: how can he lead the life he leads, and keep in exile a sort of court? Who pays for the papers, the pamphlets, the portraits? Some will tell you that certain rich Americans are giving themselves the amusement of paying for a revolution in France. Others make dark hints, speak of secret funds, of fortunes made by unfair means. The legend is attacked in its very origin.

At the present moment it looks as if the popularity of Boulanger were waning. Many people are not a little ashamed of having expected so much of him. The great majority look for a distraction. The Eiffel Tower, the Exhibition, the centenary of 1789, console many for the loss of their idol. You feel in the country a general sentiment of uneasiness, of vexation; it is like a spoiled child who has been robbed of a favorite doll. As for the future, nobody thinks of it; it is all darkness. The various parties had been disorganized by Boulangism, they have not yet been reorganized. If there were general elections to-morrow, the electoral world would be a perfect chaos, without any centres of crystallization.

MR. FROUDE'S NOVEL.

DUBLIN, April 27, 1889.

THE title of romance is hardly applicable to Mr. Froude's new book, 'Two Chiefs of Dunboy, an Irish Romance of the Last Century.' It does not contain a suggestion of "love," much less love passages or any interesting position as between man and woman, except, perhaps, the hero's midnight return over the mountains under the guidance of a peasant girl. There is no story. Yet the book is readable. There are brilliant descriptions which will hold their place in the memory. The conversations are heavy and unnatural. Kerry peasants and settlers of a time when in fact little but Irish was spoken in Munster, speak among themselves, and address to each other in what might be thrilling situations, essays conceived in the spirit of the present day; and where we have the vernacular, it is too much the stage Irish vernacular of the music-halls.* The work is, in truth, not a romance; it is a political essay—'The English in Ireland in the Nineteenth Century' recast and somewhat modified for present electioneering purposes. It will, on the whole, hardly add to the prestige of Mr. Froude as an author. It shows all his faults as a partisan exaggerated. The canvas is too small, we may say the object of the book (the belittling of a people) is too hateful, to allow full play for his genius. It may provide ready to hand a few more arrowheads for the quivers of Liberal-Unionist orators; it certainly will not attract the Irish towards Liberal-Unionist rule or the rule of the professors.

The scene is laid between Nantes and Kerry in the middle of the last century. The narrative has to do with the fortunes of a settlement of Puritans, in Kerry, under the guidance of a noble-hearted Col. Goring, doubtless suggested by Col. Gordon. There is a vivid picture of the smuggling of goods and men carried on with France consequent upon the insane commercial code of the period and the repressive measures to which the Catholics were subjected. Morty Sullivan is the hero on the Franco-Irish side—a man with all the supposed faults of the Irish nature and all its supposed virtues—a man whose character evidently bettered with the author as he proceeded. We have an ideal and in the main natural Irish exile of the period, Patrick Blake of Nantes, who has become rich by the smuggling trade with Ireland; whose hopes for his country's relief from oppression are ever green; who is always ready to spend and be spent in the cause. The description of his stores and residence on the Loire will long rest in the memory of the reader, as will that of Col. Goring's rose and fuchsia-covered cottage over Dunboy harbor—an anachronism, by the by, as fuchsias were a much later importation into this country.

As for the Irish in general, Celts or Saxons, they are a lost people, whether in the wilds of Kerry or amidst the quasi-civilization of Dublin. Indeed, on the whole, the real natives are described as less repulsive than the degenerate descendants of the planters of Cromwell and William III.

"The Irish are only dangerous to those that are afraid of them" (p. 259).

"You know enough of the people of Ireland to be aware that the last thing you can get from any of them is the truth" (p. 269).

"The Irish make good soldiers, sir," answered Goring, "and no man can be a good soldier who has not fine qualities in him of some kind. Certain races are like the nobler kind of dogs. Train a dog and rule him, and he becomes brave, loyal, faithful, affectionate, and wise. Give him liberty, and he grows into a mangy cur or a ferocious wolf" (p. 287).

"The Irish race have been always noisy, useless, and ineffectual. They have produced nothing, they have done nothing, which it is possible to admire. What they are they have always been, and the only hope for them is that their ridiculous Irish nationality should be buried and forgotten" (p. 350).

"None are braver than we when cows' tails are to be cut off or the enemies of the country shot from a hiding-place" (p. 370).

"If you can believe those glorious ballad singers and annalists of ours, we were no better than cannibals of the Pacific" (p. 371)—another of the many anachronisms which appear to me to pervade the book. The Pacific was little in the minds of even educated people until after Cooke's discoveries, some twenty years later than the date at which the narrative is laid.

"I don't want children of mine to grow up ignorant heathen, or Papists, which is worse" (p. 336).

The impression given of the fiendish barbarity of the Irish people; the abandoned frivolity of the upper classes; the general drunken confusion of society; the absence of all order, is in nowise justified by contemporary travellers and writers. Things were bad enough, and evils were natural and inevitable in the system under which the country groaned. The picture Mr. Froude draws of Ireland at that time is about as fair as one would be of England at the same period based upon the Newgate Calendar, the then undoubted venality of political life, and Hogarth's illustrations. Seeing that, according to the author, the Anglo-Irish were as bad as the Irish themselves, we are left somewhat at a loss as to his remedy for the state of things delineated in this book, which is evidently meant to apply to Ireland as it now is. His only hope seems to lie in a new Cromwell and a fresh plantation of Ireland every generation. Mr. Balfour is perhaps about as near as possible to the author's ideal, considering the sickly prejudices of the nineteenth century.

"God help Ireland, then," said the Colonel sorrowfully. "God help us and send us another Oliver" (p. 292).

"When Ireland was conquered by Cromwell, and the Irish people, like the Canaanites, had forfeited their estates by their cruelty and wickedness, the land was distributed amongst the soldiers of his army. There were those who thought it ought to be apportioned by merit. But the noblest and best preferred to leave the choice to Providence, and declared they would rather receive by lot from the Lord a patch of barren mountain than the finest soil in Ireland by the judgment of man. What those saintly men said to Cromwell, I must say to you" (p. 323).

The proofs of those men being so saintly as depicted in the subsequent history of the country since it was parcelled out among them, are not so evident. The fault doubtless was that any of the accursed Irish race was left; the desirability of their total extermination is more than hinted in one passage.

Some of the descriptions of scenery are charming. "Beautiful it was as ever; the quiet islands of the Kenmare River, dark and solid, and the far-off Skelligs rising blue on the horizon, as if shaped out of transparent mist"—this and many other passages show that Mr. Froude well knows the scenes he delineates. Probably by yachting and boating he became familiar with the coast. The interest of the book would have been enhanced by the addition of a map of Kerry. We have read few more spirited descriptions of a sea-chase and fight than that between the *Æolus* and *Doutelle*, and, seeing that the Irish privateer had the best of it in the end, the passage may yet find a place in Irish reading-books.

The volume has many and weighty admissions on the Irish side of the question:

"They [the Irish] would bear from their natural leaders what they would not bear from us; and if we have not made their lot more wretched, we have not made it any better. There is not a race in the world who would not be happier or more loyal if they were governed by a firm and just hand" (p. 80).

"The mountains bear our names, our hearts are in our glens and among our own kinsfolk, and we wish for no better. Here we have lived; here, if it please your Honor and his Lordship, we would like to remain undisturbed, and if ye will just lave us alone it is all that we will desire of ye" (p. 127).

"Each people in this world likes its own ways, and little is the good that comes from forcing them" (p. 129).

"The sun never shone upon a land more beautiful than Ireland as nature made it. It had possibilities of unbounded fertility, if human industry and human sense would do as much for it as had been done for the most neglected corner in any other country in Europe. The people were passionate and emotional, capable of devotion and self-sacrifice, loyal and affectionate to any one who would lead them and care for them. But the soil was a desert, and some subtle poison had corrupted the character of a race. . . . What did it all mean? Why, after 600 years of Saxon rule, did the Irish race remain essentially unchanged? If England was not guilty of their disorders, she had not found the spell that would cure them" (p. 156).

"The Irish, lawless though they be, feel as much horror as other people at the baser forms of crime" (p. 170).

"'I can never forget this night,' he [Col. Goring] said. 'I have heard others say that the faults of the Irish are the faults of a noble

*Mr. Froude falls into the common error of making our people mispronounce *ie* and *ee*—*prāst* for *priest*, etc.—which they seldom or never do. When the mass of the population learned English, *ea* was pronounced ā (as in hay) by educated people—and this they still very generally, in some parts of the country, adhere to—*say* for *sea*, *baste* for *beast*, *tay* for *tea*. Inaccurate observers then naturally think it all right to give *prāst* for *priest*, *same* for *seem*, etc.

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nature which has been wrenched out of its proper shape. I believe it now; for in no race in this world could I have found man or woman who would have risked what you have risked to save one whom you have been told to look on as the enemy of your country'" (p. 175).

At pages 293 and elsewhere is eloquently set forth the case of the destruction of Irish industries for the supposed benefit of English traders:

"When the actions of men are measured in the eternal scale, and the sins of those who had undertaken to rule Ireland and had not ruled it are seen in the full blossom of their consequences, the guilt of Morty, the guilt of many another desperate patriot in that ill-fated country, may be found to bear most heavily on those English statesmen whose reckless negligence was the true cause of their crime" (p. 455).

Mr. Froude's novel is meant to illustrate an episode in the struggle between what he considered English civilization and Irish barbarism. It bears the motto, "Under which King, Bezonian? Speak or die." Irish barbarism has, according to our author, obtained *the mastery. Force is the only remedy.*

I turned from the perusal of this book to attend a great meeting in Birmingham, where some 5,000 of the English people expressed their determination to pursue a policy of justice—of throwing the responsibility of government upon the Irish people themselves. I felt the heart of that great nation beating with hopeful trust in us. I moved among the best of English men and women who had devoted themselves to the Irish cause. Thoughts of true union flooded my own being and marked the faces and demeanor of other Irishmen there (rebels to a rule such as we have had in the past, and such as endures under the present administration); and I had no difficulty, when I had returned to the perusal of this volume, in answering the question, "Under which king?"—under which policy is the settlement of Ireland to be effected: coercion or conciliation; that advocated by Froude, or that of Gladstone? D. B.

Correspondence.

ANOTHER VIEW OF ARIZONA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the *Nation* of the 4th inst. is an article, dated March 15 and signed "W. G. B.," which does great injustice to Arizona, her climate, resources, and people. I am certain the writer knows little of the vast and varied resources of this Territory or its capacity for Statehood, and still less of the desires of her people on the subject. The Legislature which recently adjourned provided for the election of delegates to a constitutional convention to be held in this city in January next, and in doing so obeyed the wishes of nine-tenths of their constituents who are anxious to see Arizona admitted to the Union. "W. G. B." misrepresents popular sentiment when he affirms that "the proposal for Statehood falls rather flat, except with a few elderly politicians who feel that they are fitted to adorn the Senate Chamber of Congress without further delay." The great majority of us feel that we have outgrown Territorial nonage, are able to manage our own affairs in our own way, and are therefore ready to assume the duties and responsibilities of Statehood.

With an extreme length of 378 miles and a width of 339 miles, an area of 113,929 square miles, a magnificent patrimony of 72,915,560 acres, a soil capable of producing every variety of fruit, vegetable, and cereal known to the temperate zone; mines of coal, copper, iron, gold and silver, inexhaustible in extent; lakes of salt, springs of petroleum, and forests of pine, cedar, spruce, juniper, ash, and oak of as great extent as in any State or Territory; with a population of about 100,000, rapidly increasing—why should not Arizona say to Congress, We are ready and willing to receive the jewels of State sovereignty?

Arizona has a taxable property, as officially stated by Governor Zulick in his official report to the Secretary of the Interior, of $75,000,000. She has 20,000 square miles of lumber forests; she has in her mountains, parks, and plateaus, where the rainfall is from twenty to thirty-five inches per annum, twenty millions of acres of land, whose enormous crops of wheat, oats, and root vegetables can be grown without irrigation. The completed canals and those under construction will reclaim two millions of acres of land, every twenty acres of which will support a family. The amount of land which can be reclaimed under a thorough system of irrigation, by impounding the storm-flood water and reserving it for times of want, cannot be definitely ascertained until the United States Geological Survey has concluded its labors, but that it will be very large goes without saying, for in many localities, as in the Little Colorado Valley, where the rainfall is from twelve to fifteen inches and the mountains surrounding furnish natural basins for the storage of water, it is an inexpensive task to store all that is required for the one or two irrigations necessary to raise a crop.

Lieutenant Wheeler, in one of his reports of exploration in Arizona, institutes a comparison between that portion of this Territory between meridians 111 and 113° 45′ and parallels of latitude 34° and 35° 45′, by no means the best arable portion, and the eastern portion of southern California and southern Nevada in the same latitude.

	California and Nevada Per Cent.	Arizona Per Cent.
Agricultural, irrigable, and arable land.	2	25
Timber	6	10
Grazing	88	30
Barren	4	35

It is quite certain that the body of agricultural land irrigable and arable will make 25 per cent. of the whole, the timber lands 20 per cent., the grazing lands 35 per cent., the barren lands not more than 20 per cent.; and the so-called barren lands are well grassed, and have many mines rich in mineral, gold, silver, and copper, that will be worked to a profit when railroads give cheap transportation on products and supplies.

"W. G. B." quotes approvingly from a recent article in the *Political Science Quarterly* as follows, to the effect that "the only occupations possible on any extended scale are mining and grazing, both of which tend to produce a system of manners and morals, personal and political, entirely unlike those of agricultural communities." Had he been familiar with the history of California, he would have known that in the early days it was affirmed that she could never grow wheat for home consumption; that up to fifteen years ago the central portion of the State, where now are the magnificent vineyards of Fresno County, the fields of grain and alfalfa that have advanced the lands of Kern and Tulare Counties from two dollars to fifty dollars per acre, was declared to be worthless except for sheep. Up to ten years ago the great possibilities of southern California were unknown and unrecognized. Orchard lands, unimproved, which with water rights now command from $200 to $500 per acre, could then have been purchased at from $5 to $15 per acre. The physical features of central and southern Arizona are the same as those of southern California. The Santa Cruz, San Pedro, Salt, and Gila Rivers, which drain this section, afford an abundance of water for irrigation. The soil, an alluvial deposit varying in depth from six to twenty feet, made up from the detritus of the surrounding mountains through the wash of ages, has a vigor of production unsurpassed in the temperate zone. Combining the fertility of pure alluvium with the warmth of tropical sand, it reaches the acme of fecundity. The Pima and Maricopa Indians, whose reservations are in the Salt and Gila valleys, have for centuries cultivated the same lands without change of seed or exhaustion of the soil, producing, after their crude system of agriculture, better average crops than are grown in any of the wheat-growing States east of the Mississippi River.

"No one," says Orange Judd of the *Prairie Farmer*, "will waste any sympathy upon farmers compelled to irrigate their lands in California, in Colorado, in New Mexico, or Arizona, providing they have fertile soil, a genial climate, and enough of ready available water for irrigation." Doctors disagree. "W. G. B.," speaking of Arizona farmers, says: "They work the farms with their own hands, struggle helplessly with the great railroads over rates, and in too many instances wear away an unhappy life under the money-loaners' 2 per cent. per month." In no country is farming more profitable than in Arizona. The ruling rate of interest on real-estate securities is 12 per cent. per annum. In the valleys of the Salt and Gila, where there are reclaimed more than 500,000 acres, which the canals now under construction will treble, there has never been a farm sold under foreclosure; the same is true in a general sense of farms and farmers in Verde, Williamson, Little Colorado, and other valleys in northern Arizona. There is no place where a man upon a lesser acreage can support a family and accumulate a store for old age than in central and southern Arizona. Wheat yields from twenty to twenty-five bushels per acre, barley thirty, alfalfa from six to eight tons. Raisin grapes give a greater return than in any portion of the known world: the vines at six years give eight tons per acre of grapes, which, on account of the great amount of saccharine matter and the facilities for curing (no artificial heat being required), yield 35 per cent. raisins. All citric and deciduous fruits ripen here three weeks earlier than in the most favored localities of California. In a country where alfalfa gives a net profit of $25 per acre annually, as is the custom in all parts of Arizona, and where the orchardist sells his crop on the trees or vines at from $100 to $200 per acre, it is idle to waste sympathy upon the farmer.

The settlement of Arizona has been retarded by Indian outbreaks; for thirty years after it passed under the American flag there was a struggle between civilization and barbarism, and all of us mourn the loss of friends and kindred, the best and truest of our race, whose lives were sacrificed in the long and deadly struggle. With the removal of the Chiricahua and Warm Springs tribes to Florida, peace was insured to the Territory, and her advance has been most rapid. Capital and labor are

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combining to develop all our latent resources. The Walnut Grove storage reservoir, built at a cost of nearly a half-million dollars, in Yavapai County, it is claimed, will add 100,000 acres to the cultivable area of that locality. A like company is being organized in Pinal County, calculated to reclaim 1,000,000 acres, one in this, Maricopa, to serve 250,000 acres, besides smaller enterprises in other localities.

It is a fact, demonstrated by scientific investigation, that Arizona at one time was most densely populated. In the Salt River valley, according to Professor Cushing, there was a population of 300,000 souls; in the valleys of the Santa Cruz, the Pueblo Viejo, and along the Gila for several hundred miles, are found traces of old water-ways, the ruins of dwellings, the tools and farming utensils of the husbandmen of long ago, who supported themselves by agricultural and horticultural pursuits. If this land, seven or eight centuries ago, as archæologists claim, under the rude processes of cultivation known at that time, supported a dense and prosperous population, why, under modern conditions, can it not be done again? It is true that the cultivation of the soil by the artificial application of water is somewhat new to the Eastern farmer, as are also the crops; but with water to use in quantities great or small as his crops require, he has no concern about failure, and an abundant harvest is always secured. Oranges, lemons, olives, raisin-grapes, and kindred products are also a new thing to him as to "W. G. B.," but it is a most profitable investment for labor and money, and one that can be at all times relied upon to yield a profit of at least $150 per acre when the trees and vines are in full bearing.

What Arizona needs is more railroads. Had it not been for the restrictive legislation of the Forty-ninth Congress in limiting Territorial indebtedness to 4 per cent. of the taxable property, there now would have been a road from Prescott to Phœnix, which would have opened up a large agricultural, mining, and farming country; the road from Flagstaff would have been built through Globe into the Gila and Salt River valleys, which would have opened the great forests of the Mogollon, the coal fields of Gila County, besides making available a large body of rich arable land, where wheat, oats, and root vegetables can be grown without irrigation. At present neither Territory, county, nor city can lend its credit to works of internal improvement. The Harrison act of 1886 blocks the road. Congress says practically to Arizona, We will not help you to reclaim your desert lands, build railroads, nor develop the sources of wealth Nature has placed at your door; and *you shall not do it.*

"W. G. B." says: "As to the direct effect of climate, there has not been time to test it. Few men have been here as long as twenty years, and the most thriving towns of the south are scarcely ten years old." Of the population of Arizona there is as large a proportion who have dwelt here for twenty years as in any Territory. The principal southern towns are Tucson and Phœnix, each with a population of about 7,000. Tucson, next to San Augustine, is the oldest town in the United States; Phœnix was located in 1869; Florence in Pinal County is sixteen years old, Yuma (Yuma County) thirty years old, Tombstone (Cochise County) eleven years old. The climate has not been tested? Write any reputable physician what he thinks of it; he will tell you that there is no malaria, that the winds which in Southern Arizona rob the day of oppressive heat, pass from the Gulf of California over several hundred miles of desert which acts as a desiccant, leaving the atmosphere dry to the last degree, and that in consequence it is the sanitarium of those afflicted with lung troubles.

The warmest weather I have ever felt was in New York when the thermometer stood at 100°. In Arizona we have a variety of climate equal to the Empire State. Around Prescott and Flagstaff, and in other localities of from 4,500 to 6,000 feet altitude, the days in summer are pleasant, the nights cool, always requiring one or two pairs of blankets for comfortable sleeping. In the lower valleys it is warm from June 15 to September 15. During this time the thermometer will range at midday from 105° to 112°, about the same as at Hanford and Bakersfield, California; but, strange to say, there is no fever, and men in the harvest field do full days' work without exhaustion or sunstrokes. Lieut. W. A. Glassford, United States Signal Corps, in referring to the heat in our southern section, says:

"It is recorded as extreme, yet no one suffers, and sunstrokes are unknown. This is usually accounted for from the purity and dryness of the air. Both are true; but the dryness is perhaps the correct reason. . . . The ordinary exposed thermometer gives the shade, the wet bulb the sensible temperature. The difference is illustrated by wetting one hand and exposing both to the atmosphere. One is dry and feverish, the other moist and fresh. I have calculated the difference between the shade and sensible temperature at Yuma during the heated hour of the day and it is about 30°. At New York or Washington it is only a few degrees, and is often identical. The highest shade temperature ever recorded at Yuma is 118°. When the heat is at this point the sensible temperature is about 88°. The shade temperature at New York being 105°, the sensible temperature is certainly near 100°. The difference between the mean shade and the mean sensible temperature for July is over 17° at Yuma. These considerations of the sensible and shade temperature will account for the absence of any detrimental effects from the extreme heat of Arizona."

As to the morals of the people of Arizona, we compare favorably with any American community. Men are as true to their families and our officials as faithful to their trust here as elsewhere. In no city or town are private dwellings locked and barred at night; burglaries are rarely known. That "Nevada, Utah, and Montana are Northern States" gives them no advantage over Arizona, which has in natural wealth resources equal if not superior to either of them. We have wealth and population sufficient to take care of ourselves; and as a Territorial government was never intended to be more than temporary, we feel that Congress should not longer deprive us of a voice in the Government we are taxed to support.

T. E. FARISH.

PHOENIX, April 26, 1889.

"LABOR" AND PRISON LABOR.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The *Nation* very justly denounces the folly exhibited in the management of some of the prisons in our country; *i.e.*, in that the convicts are kept in idleness. It also seems inclined to blame organized labor for such condition. Now, as President of the Federated Trades here, and as one who has sat in the councils of labor unions in several States, I claim to know something of what workingmen desire in relation to this matter.

In brief it is this: They want all contractors driven out of penal institutions. They want the State-account system introduced. They want the business confined to one or two industries.

There you have it in concise form, and I fail to see any injustice or folly in the demands. The trouble is, that the workingmen are fooled out of their promised legislation through the influence of those who profit by the contract system. They elect men who promise to abolish contracts, and then the contractors get in their work by compelling the people to support the convicts in idleness, thus making the legislation so odious that the people gladly rush back to the contract system in order to be rid of the undue burden of supporting the convict in idleness. If the plan were carried out in full, it would be beneficial all around. We can always tell closely how many convicts there will be in a State for a year to come. Thus we know how much raw material to purchase and how much of the finished product will be placed on the market at a certain date. It introduces order into the present anarchy of convict-labor management, and can be made to pay, too, if it's pay we are looking for.

EUGENE HOUGH.

OAKLAND, CAL., April 29, 1889.

LOCAL AND STATE ASPECTS OF PROHIBITION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your editorial of May 2, after referring to the decrease of crime in Iowa under prohibition, you speak of a combination of local option and high license as if it would surely bring to the State all the good results, at least, of prohibition. Now the decrease in crime which has been noted, if it is in any way the result of prohibition, must occur wholly in the rural districts, for the free whiskey which prohibition gives the cities must certainly work in the other direction. Do we, then, get the same results from local option as from State prohibition, in the country and smaller towns?

At first glance it certainly would seem as if local option ought to give the country the benefits of prohibition while avoiding its evil effects in the cities. But this is not the case. All through this State, for instance, are communities which would give majorities for prohibition on a State vote, but in which local interests and friendships make it impossible to obtain the passage of local anti-license laws; and when, in addition, one considers the communities without a prohibition majority, but with near enough to one to enable a State law to be fairly well enforced, it is evident that, for the State at large, the two systems produce very different results.

As a believer in high license and local option, I mention this consideration because it should be taken into account in a fair judgment on the Prohibitionists' claims. H. G.

OMAHA, NEB., May 5, 1889.

A GOOD AND GREAT MAN'S OPTIMISM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In cheering contrast to the gloomy utterances of Bishops Potter and Huntington and to your somewhat pessimistic article on "A Century of Democracy," in the *Nation* for May 2, I notice the glowing statement of the Hon. John D. Long in your truly pious contemporary, the *Independent* for April 25. Mr. Long contributes a short article on "Washington, the Good and Great Man," in which he makes the following assertion, which certainly shows a sublimely optimistic faith in "progress": "*Men were not so good or so great in his [Washington's] day as in ours;* and yet Washington is preëminently the good and great man, and nothing describes him better than that simple phrase." (The italics are mine.)

Whether these better and greater men are common to the whole country, or whether they are limited to some particularly favored section—for example, Massachusetts—is not indi-

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cated by the learned writer. It is comforting to be thus assured that our national development has not been merely a material one, but has, in spite of what may seem to be indications to the contrary, been equally a moral and intellectual progress. P. W. A.

A PROBLEM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In an exceedingly interesting review of Ball's 'History of Mathematics,' the reviewer says (*Nation*, No. 1242, p. 330) that the question, "If the third of six be three, what will the fourth of twenty be?" is a simple problem, and that the answer is 7½.

On the contrary, the question is, as Ball calls it, absurd. The only proper answer is, that the fourth of 20 will remain 5, whatever ridiculous suppositions you make about the third of 6.

And if it be said that we must perform the same operation on 20 : 4 that we have performed on 6 : 3, we have not removed the difficulty, because 6 : 3 can be made to assume the value 3 in a variety of ways. The reviewer assumes that we either multiply the 6 by three halves, or the 3 by two thirds; and either of those operations applied to 20 : 4 gives us 7½. But 6 : 3 becomes equal to 3 when we add 3 to the 6. Add 3 to the 20 gives 23 : 4, equals 5¾. Or subtract 1 from the 3 gives 6 : 2=3; subtract 1 from 4 gives 20 : 3=6⅔. Or multiply the 6 by 4½ gives 27 : 3, = 9, the square root of which is 3. Multiply 20 by 4½ gives 90 : 4= 22.5, the square root of which is 4.743. There is no reason why 4.743, or 6.667, or 5.75, or either of forty other numbers, is not as good an answer as 7.5, the reviewer's answer.

Thomas Hill.

[Whether, in any given case, it is worth while to make an absurd supposition or not, is a question depending upon circumstances. What follows, according to the legitimate principles of logical reasoning from a given supposition, is always a proper question, with the propriety of which the absurdity or foolishness or insanity of the supposition has nothing to do. Stated formally, the hypothetical proposition, "If A is B, then C is D" may be perfectly true, although the supposition that A is B may be ridiculous, foolish, insane, absurd, or worthy of any other epithet you may choose to apply to it. Dr. Hill says "the fourth of 20 will remain 5, whatever ridiculous suppositions you make about the third of 6." Undoubtedly; but so will the third of 6 remain 2, whatever ridiculous suppositions you make with regard to it. Dr. Hill entirely mistakes the logical meaning of the question, and falls into the very trap which the old arithmeticians set for him.

Stated more fully and clearly, the question is this: If we absurdly suppose that the third of 6 is 3, what is the proportionate absurdity we must make in regard to the fourth of 20? The proper solution of the problem, stated in the form of the "rule of three," is as follows: As 2, the true third of 6, is to 3, the absurdly supposed third, so is 5, the true fourth of 20, to x. Taking the product of the extremes, $2x$, and equating it to the product of the means, 15, we have the equation $2x=15$, or $x=7\frac{1}{2}$, the proper answer. By reasoning wholly analogous, the answer to Tartaglia's question can be shown to be 15, as the reviewer stated.

The rest of Dr. Hill's letter seems to us wholly irrelevant, and to require no remark. —Ed. Nation.]

TAPSALTEERIE AND *TOPSYTURVY*.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: "A. I.," in No. 1240 of your journal, calls attention to the poet Burns's *tapsalteerie*, "a word on which," as he humorously remarks, "the Scottish dictionaries throw a good deal of darkness." The passage he quotes for it, with two others in which Burns has the expression, are also adduced in a letter I have received from "A. A. T." of Washington City. At the time I discussed *topsyturvy*, none of those passages was present to my memory, nor had I access to the etymological vagaries of the Scotch lexicographer, Dr. Jamieson.

The editor of the great 'English Dictionary' now in course of publication, Dr. Murray, on my consulting him with reference to *tapsalteerie*, has obligingly sent me some notes, the substance of which it seems desirable that I should communicate.

In his native county, Roxburghshire, for one district of Scotland, *topsieteerie* is a term well known, while *tapsieteerie* is current in other parts of the country. These he regards as merely dialectal forms of *topsyturvy*. His mention of *tapsieteerie* is an addition to our previous knowledge; and Burns's *tapsalteerie*, he says, is generally considered as a whimsical substitute for it, on the assumption that *taps*, "tops," and *al*, "all," were among its original elements. The terminal *teerie*, he surmises, may have been corrupted, through *turrie*, from *turvy*, by dropping *v* after *r*, as in *ser*, for *serve*.

It does not appear to have been shown that Scotch literature, between 1623, when Lithgow used *topsoltiria*, and the days of Burns, with his *tapsalteerie*, reveals any variant of *topsyturvy* containing the syllable *ol* or *al*. That a historical connexion between the two forms may be discovered is possible. It is possible, too, as I have already suggested, that typographical error was responsible for more or less of *topsoltiria*, which, had I known of *tapsalteerie*, I should not have proposed, as I did, to trace, in part, to the Italian *sotterra*.

Your obedient servant, F. H.

Marlesford, England, April 20, 1889.

FROM RUSSIAN INTO FRENCH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: There seems to be an impression prevalent that the French translations from the Russian are more trustworthy, and better represent the originals, than those made into English directly from the Russian. The French translations that I have examined are illustrative of one great theory of "the art," namely, that a translation should reproduce not the style but the general content of the original, as opposed to the counter theory that the form and style should be reproduced as faithfully as possible. In translating Count Tolstoi's works, for instance, the latter theory leads necessarily to a certain baldness. The Russian author says *on pashól*, "he went (off)"; the Frenchman translates it or expands it into "Après avoir exhalé sa colère, il s'en fut chez lui"—which is picturesque, but does not represent the original. That is a very characteristic mode of treatment. But in the case of an author like Count Tolstoi it seems to me due his greatness to reproduce him in all his rugged strength, even with his invented words and his favorite polyglot.

A more serious case of the French gratuitousness in dealing with Count Tolstoi is to be found in M. Michel Délines's 'La Physiologie de la Guerre' (known in English as 'Napoleon and the Russian Campaign'). This example is as follows:

"Ils partaient sans se rendre compte de ce qu'il y avait de grandiose dans le spectacle de cette vaste et riche capitale abandonnée par ses habitants, et livrée ainsi en victime aux flammes, car une grande ville construite en bois et désertée par ses habitants était fatalement destinée à brûler."

The original, literally translated, is this:

"They [*zhiteli*, the inhabitants] drove away, and thought not of the majestic significance of this vast, rich capital, abandoned by its inhabitants and evidently to be burned (not to plunder, nor to set fire to empty houses, is not in the nature [soul] of the Russian people)."

That the vast rich capital was *constructed of wood*, and that it was destined by fate to be burned because it was abandoned by its inhabitants, is an example of the Frenchman gilding gold. That my criticism may be free from all appearance of disingenuousness, I will add, however, that the idea conveyed by or into the sentence quoted from M. Délines's translation is found later on in chapter vii of the same work ('War and Peace,' vol. iii, part 3, chapter xxvi, *ad finem*), where it is declared that "a city built of wood" (*derevyánnui górod*) and occupied by an enemy careless of fire could not help burning. But Count Tolstoi delights in paradox, and there is no reason why a translator should try to reconcile apparent or actual contradictions.—I am, etc.,

Nathan Haskell Dole.

Hedgecote, Jamaica Plain, April 20, 1889.

Notes.

D. Appleton & Co. will shortly publish 'The Ice Age of North America, and its Bearings on the Antiquity of Man,' by Prof. G. Frederick Wright, with ample photographic illustrations; 'Days Out of Doors,' by Dr. Charles C. Abbott; 'In the Wire Grass,' a novel by Louis Pendleton, and 'Luce,' a romance by Paul Lindau.

J. B. Lippincott Co. issue directly the first volume of the 'Cyclopædia of the Diseases of Children,' edited by Dr. John M. Keating, and 'Laramie; or, the Queen of Bedlam,' by Capt. Charles King.

The Long Island Historical Society will soon print, for subscribers, about one hundred and fifty unpublished letters of Washington, from its manuscript collections, in a large and handsome octavo volume, entitled 'George Washington and Mount Vernon.' It will contain a portrait of Washington, not heretofore engraved, from an original painting by Charles Peale (1787), owned by the Rev. Mason Gallagher of Brooklyn; also a portrait of Betty Lewis, Washington's only sister. The historical introduction and annotations will be prepared by Mr. Moncure Daniel Conway, biographer of Edmund Randolph. The collection is said to possess uncommon interest, abounding in curious and characteristic personal details, and conveying a very realistic conception of Washington as a master, a neighbor, a husbandman—a man concerned with minutest details of private affairs at a period (1793-1799) when his public action affected the interests of the world.

The Palestine Exploration Society announces that Mr. Guy le Strange's work on 'Palestine according to the Arabic Geographers' is completed in manuscript, and will be published in the autumn.

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We duly announced the appearance of the enlarged edition of Prof. Villari's classical work on the life and times of Savonarola, and we have now the pleasure of recording its appearance in an English dress at the hands of Signora Villari (Scribner & Welford). The book is too generally known as the most complete and satisfactory account of the Florentine prophet, and of the exceedingly complex conditions which gave occasion to his extraordinary career and caused his martyrdom, to require more than the statement that it is now accessible to English readers in a faithful and fluent version. Necessarily the appendices of documents which gave to the original edition an especial value for students, are absent, but the volumes are enriched with a new preface, dated February 10, 1889, in which the author defends himself temperately and forcibly from some recent criticisms on the view which he has taken of Savonarola's position and of Machiavelli's opinions concerning him. Prof. Villari's intimate familiarity with all the sources of Florentine history in the fifteenth century is too absolute for his positions to be successfully impugned. A number of appropriate illustrations are scattered through the volumes, the most interesting of which is a facsimile of Savonarola's autograph abstract of his sermon of February 27, 1491.

Prof. Alessandro d'Ancona of the University of Pisa, well known for his studies in folk-lore as well as in history, has just published an excellent edition of the 'Journal du Voyage' of Montaigne, under the title of 'L'Italia alla fine del Secolo XVI.; giornale del viaggio di Michele de Montaigne in Italia nel 1580 e 1581' (Città di Castello: S. Lapi, 1889). The text is printed as originally written, partly in French and partly in Italian, and is illustrated with copious notes, which are of great importance. There is appended to the book a *catalogue raisonné* of the travels in Italy, and descriptions of Italian customs in foreign languages, down to the year 1815. Although it is not perfect, it is by far the best bibliography of Italian travels that exists.

The book of Marcellin Pellet, 'Napoléon a l'île d'Elbe,' which was noticed in the *Nation*, No. 1231, is confirmed in most of its facts by another book, drawn from different sources, 'Napoleone all' isola d'Elba' (Milan: Fratelli Treves), by Giovanni Livi, now Director of the State Archives at Brescia. This author lays great stress on the Italian intrigues and plots to persuade Napoleon to devote himself to the Italian cause and unify Italy, by allowing himself to be proclaimed Emperor of the Romans and King of Italy. These overtures were still toyed with by Napoleon when the state of France showed him that his return thither was possible, and his decision was hastened by the discussions at the Congress of Vienna.

The republication of O'Meara's book on Napoleon at St. Helena naturally revives the old discussion about Sir Hudson Lowe. It may be remarked that the popular opinion adverse to that person is fully confirmed by the official reports of Baron Stürmer, the Commissary at St. Helena of the Austrian Government, which were published at Vienna in 1886 by H. Schlitter. A French translation by Jacques St.-Cère, has been published at Paris, at the Librairie Illustrée; but, with a carelessness which is growing with French publishers, the book has no indication of the date of its publication. Further confirmation can be found in the Reports of the Russian Commissary, Count Balmain, which were published in 1867 in Bartenieff's historical journal, the *Russkii Arkhiv*, in the original French, and which we believe have never been reprinted, so that they are practically inaccessible outside of Russia. The Reports of the Marquis de Montchenu, the French Commissary, would probably also prove interesting; and it is to be hoped that some one will take the trouble to edit and print them.

'The History of Preaching,' by the late John Ker, D.D. (Armstrongs), is made up of selections from the lectures of the author, delivered as Professor in the Theological Seminary of the United Presbyterian Church of Scotland. Something more than half the book is given to the German pulpit since the Reformation, and this is its most valuable part, the remainder being devoted to a rather unsatisfactory account of preaching in the Jewish Church, in New Testament times, in the Oriental Church, and in the Western Church down to the sixteenth century, and to the many "lessons" which it behooved the Professor's hearers to draw from the history. Dr. Ker was a leading preacher of his day, and these lectures show him to have been a man of broad, if somewhat old-fashioned, learning. There is an abundance of shrewd comment to be found in his pages, as witness the following remark about Chrysostom: "He was envied by many of his fellows on account of his popularity, and disliked by them because of his secluded life and reserved manner. The people do not feel this fault; fellow-ministers do. If a popular preacher is to be liked by his brethren, he must be very frank and human."

The readers of 'Pleasant Hours in Sunny Lands' (Boston: Cupples & Hurd), by I. N. Lewis, A.M., LL.B., will heartily agree with the author in his feeling "that too little care has been taken in relating" the incidents of his tour around the world. Two sentences will be sufficient for examples of his style. The Chinamen "are amusingly peculiar in tone and inflection, and you must keep out of sight, as from a frog-pond, when curiosity or amusement leads one to draw near, if you wish to listen to a genuine colloquy, and to which, in fact, it bears closer resemblance than anything else I can imagine." The flat-boats "are full of merchandise from these rich fields, but like a trio on our city sidewalks, if you wish very much to hasten, the slimness of the man or the breadth of his two female companions hardly afford the necessary patience for a stoppage in transitu." We are not sure, however, that the publishers are not more to blame than the author for permitting so many imperfect and unmeaning sentences to pass uncorrected. Some of the illustrations are interesting reproductions of photographs.

The eleventh instalment of 'Stieler's Hand-Atlas,' now in process of publication in a new edition (Gotha: Perthes; New York: Westermann), introduces Africa with a first sheet, and the United States with a fourth. The Dark Continent has for some time been the cartographer's most interesting domain, and the rapid development of the Congo State is furnishing daily fresh knowledge of the great inland water-courses, forests, and populations. Any new African map having the authority and the excellence of Perthes's will be eagerly welcomed.

Mr. Henry F. Waters's "Genealogical Gleanings in England," in the April number of the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register*, deals with English wills of Way, Wyman, Archdale, Shrimpton, Yeamans, and other New England and Virginia families. There is a list (one of a series) of alumni of the University of Pennsylvania who have held official positions; another, by Judge Richardson, of Harvard alumni who have received honorary degrees as named. For the rest there is the usual variety in this issue of the oldest and best of genealogical periodicals.

We read in the newly published Proceedings of the Wisconsin Historical Society that its bound newspaper files number 5,557 volumes, and are surpassed in extent only by those of the National Library at Washington. A long list is given of the early files of papers published in Holland, Great Britain, and this country from 1650 down to 1799, nearly complete as far as they go. They are a rich quarry for historical students. The pamphlet concludes with a monograph on the "Fur Trade of Wisconsin," by Frederick J. Turner.

We have received also the Proceedings of the Davenport (Iowa) Academy of Natural Sciences, containing, besides a variety of scientific papers, a memorial of the late Prof. David S. Sheldon, whose portrait serves as a frontispiece. Dr. Frederick Starr embodies the observations of some thirty-five correspondents in a diary of Iowa thunderstorms for 1887.

Paris Illustré for May 4 (International News Co.) is a capital Exposition number, showing photographically the wonders of the Eiffel Tower, the interior of Machinery Hall, and samples of the interesting group of dwellings, of all times and nations, which measure the adaptation of man to his environment in the successive stages of his civilization. Add portraits of M. Eiffel and of M. Berger, one of the directors. The account of M. Eiffel's previous career as an engineer is very instructive.

A very agreeable account of the brief career of Eugène Renduel, the great publisher who gave his imprint to the chief lights of the Romantic school of French writers, forms the leading article in *Le Livre* for February. We say brief because, after ten years of this distinction, his health compelled him to retreat to the country, and shortly to make a definitive choice between his old calling and a purely rural, outdoor life, which meant practical oblivion until he passed away some thirty years after. The determination, we feel, was a happy one for him. Two portraits of this amiable and able man accompany M. Adolphe Jullien's paper. M. Jullien is in turn depicted in the April number, in connection with a very just eulogy of his recent works on Wagner and Berlioz; his effective use of contemporary caricature to illustrate his narrative being the main thought of the paper by M. Francis Rénier, who introduces several examples of this authentic kind of portraiture from the musical biographies in question. Alexander Dumas, who, with George Sand, Mérimée, and Janin, was one of the signal absentees from Renduel's list of authors, is celebrated in the May number on a side little known, to foreigners at least. M. Charles Glinel presents a nearly exhaustive list of Dumas's poetic performances, and in several instances prints the verses themselves for the first time. The quantity of all this is more surprising than the quality. Some imitations from Pushkin are interesting on account of the African blood which tinged both Dumas and the great Russian poet.

We read in *Le Livre* that in August next the *Journal des Débats* will celebrate its centenary in a volume reviewing its past, with the collaboration of such weighty names as the Duc d'Aumale, A. Dumas *fils*, Renan, Taine, Léon Say, Vogüé, John Lemoinne, Legouvé, Cherbuliez, Gréard, etc. Fine illustrations after Ingres, Delacroix, etc., will adorn the work, which will be issued by Plon.

The *Nuova Antologia* for March 16 contains an interesting article by D'Ancona on the popular songs of Piedmont, under the form of a review of the book by Costantino Nigra, 'I Canti popolari del Piemonte' (Turin: Loescher).

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One may read in the Milan *Perseveranza* for April 1 a narrative of extraordinary interest by Prof. C. Magenta, describing the demonstration of his brilliant antiquarian deduction that a certain urn in the Certosa of Pavia, supposed to be a mere monolithic simulacrum, was the cunningly devised monkish hiding-place of the remains of the Duke Gian Galeazzo Visconti and Isabella of Valois. Both bodies were in fact found within, with fragments of clothing, etc., but entirely despoiled of all valuables such as were associated with them when in 1562 they were committed to the urn. Drawings were made of the Duke's skull, whose size and shape were notable and agreed well with the extant portraits. The skeleton showed his stature to have been not less than 1.80 metres (say 5 ft. 9 in.). The opening was made with due formality on April 2, and the remains were redeposited.

In the *Bollettino* of the National Central Library of Florence for April 15, it is stated that the Dante collection on which the library prides itself has been recently considerably augmented. To say nothing of his minor writings, the collection now embraces no fewer than 420 editions of the 'Divina Commedia.' Of these, 323 are in Italian, 33 in French, 31 in German, 10 in English, 9 in Latin, 5 in Dutch, and 9 in other tongues. A Swedish version of the first seven cantos of the "Inferno," and a Bohemian of the entire Comedy—the only complete one in that language—are among the latest accessions.

A circumstance well worth recording is the winning of two of the Boylston prizes for declamation at Harvard College last week by colored undergraduates, one of whom was first and the other fourth on the list. The competition took place, as usual, at the Sanders Theatre, in the presence of a large and interested audience, and the speaking was exceptionally good; and Clement Garnett Morgan and Edward Burghardt DuBois are conceded to have fairly won their honors. Mr. Morgan, who is uncompromisingly black, chose a passage from Carl Schurz on the Emancipation Proclamation, and rendered it in a manner to touch deeply those whose memories could bridge the chasm even of a single generation.

—At the close of the exercises attending the opening of the Johns Hopkins Hospital at Baltimore, President Gilman announced that a fund of $100,000 had been subscribed for the support of the University. This amount, together with the accumulated surplus still on hand, and the income which has not been cut off through the suspension of dividends by the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, will suffice to carry on the University without contraction of its work for the next three years. This was the object of the subscription; the amount was subscribed chiefly in sums of $5,000, and almost entirely by Baltimoreans. It was raised very quietly, without special solicitation, and without any organized effort on the part of the University authorities; the names of the donors have not been published. Baltimore having thus stood in the breach, and secured the unimpaired efficiency of the Johns Hopkins University for the immediate future, it would be very gratifying if the friends of university education throughout the country would now take up the cause and permanently strengthen the foundation of the University. In addition to the completion of the $100,000 fund, President Gilman announced the gift of $20,000 by Mr. and Mrs. Lawrence Turnbull, to endow a lectureship of poetry, and an equal sum from Mr. Eugene Levering, to be used for building purposes. We have sufficiently expressed (*Nation*, December 10, 1888) our conviction that no better application of money to the service of the higher education could be found at the present time than in assisting the Johns Hopkins University, either by adding to its general fund or by endowing special departments or professorships.

—A memorial has lately been addressed to the Lord President of the Council and the Chancellor of the Exchequer by members of the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge, expressing a hope that measures may be taken for allowing selected candidates for teacherships in the elementary schools to spend the whole or part of their time of training at the Universities. No attempt was made to get a large number of signatures, but rather, as it would seem, that the names signed should be in some sort representative. Fifty-nine such names are subscribed to the memorial, all of which are those of heads of houses, professors, readers or lecturers, or fellows of colleges, save two—the names of the late and of the present head-master of Rugby. The memorialists say: "We are of opinion that such a mode of training would be free from defects which have been attributed to the present system, and that the body of teachers in elementary schools would gain by the admission of a portion of their number to a share in the life and traditions of the Universities."

—Doubtless this would be a very desirable thing; and doubtless, also, it may be accomplished in spite of many obvious difficulties. The question of residence, for instance, might be got over, as has been already suggested, by affiliating some of the present training-institutions with colleges in Oxford or Cambridge, and allowing two years' residence in them to count as one year at the University. This would greatly diminish expenses. The chief objection to the present system of training-colleges is that which has so often been brought against the theological schools—that not only is their range of teaching narrow, but they foster a narrow professional feeling in their scholars. Life in a great university might correct this. Another consideration which makes the proposed scheme desirable is, that the present training-colleges are largely denominational, being for the most part, though not entirely, in the hands of the Church of England. The influence of the Church of England is very great, perhaps predominant, at the Universities also; but the colleges are strictly undenominational (with a few exceptions), and, at any rate, there is a freer air at Oxford or Cambridge than there is in any training-school. Since the memorial spoken of above was presented, a general meeting of the Teachers' University Association has been held at Toynbee Hall in London, and the memorial was a subject of discussion. So far as appears from the reports, the meeting was entirely in its favor. The chief speaker was Prof. James Bryce, and he brought forward one argument for the scheme of which, we confess, we had never thought. "It was a great misfortune," he said, "that the university teachers could at present classify teachers who had not been to a university as if they belonged to a lower order: and it was highly desirable to make the teaching profession feel itself one and undivided, as was the case in the United States."

—Attention was directed some months ago to the manifest improvements in the manufacture of optical glass brought about by the researches of Prof. Abbe of Jena. The possible advantages in telescope construction were there hinted at, but they have only now been realized, through the painstaking investigation of Dr. Hastings of Yale University. In selecting from an extended series of the new German glasses, with widely varying optical properties, Dr. Hastings was hampered by the fact that a serious deterioration of the polished surfaces of many of these glasses will take place on ordinary atmospheric exposure. While this is not a practical limitation in making microscope objectives, it was necessary to regard it as such in the case of telescope objectives, where the larger and more costly lenses must be permanent, or their final cost will render them wholly impracticable. In the *American Journal of Science* for April, Dr. Hastings develops a general method for determining the secondary chromatic aberration for a double telescope objective, and describes a telescope newly made by himself and sensibly free from this defect. Selecting from the catalogue of the Abbe glasses two which appeared, from the inspection of their optical properties, to form a most advantageous combination, Dr. Hastings first made from them prisms, and redetermined their optical constants with great precision. With these data he found it possible to calculate an objective whose achromatism should be sensibly perfect.

—It remained to make such a telescope. This was necessary in order to afford practical demonstration of the value of the new combination, both in point of absence of the residuum of color always present in the ordinary telescope, and as to the expected gain in the defining power of the telescope. As a practical optician, Dr. Hastings had already much experience, having ground and figured several object glasses—among them one of 9.5 inches diameter now mounted at the Johns Hopkins University; and it is a matter of regret that disks of the new glass were not available of a nearly equivalent aperture, for the practical test. As it was, the largest objective which could be made from the pieces at his command was of 2¾ inches clear aperture, and these were accurately figured to the curvatures and thicknesses indicated by his computations. On beginning to observe, the most surprising feature was the astonishing beauty of the images in the new telescope. The fringe of purple light familiar to all users of telescopes was wholly wanting, and only a trace of it was found to exist, on imposing the conditions most suitable to its exhibition. The customary astronomical tests of its defining power were applied, with highly satisfactory results: objects which, in an ordinary telescope of equivalent aperture, require careful looking, appeared strikingly plain. Sundry other tests which need not be instanced here have been conducted by Dr. Hastings, and lead to the significant gain of nearly one-fourth in the effective capabilities of the new telescope over the achromatic objective of the usual construction. It may be expected that the difficulties in procuring large melts of the new glass will not prove insurmountable, and that the gain in the performance of large telescopes will be greater than Dr. Hastings has demonstrated it to be for small ones.

—The Geographical Bureau of the Home Department of the Japanese Government is doing for the people of Nippon what our Signal Service accomplishes for us. A fat bundle of pamphlet publications just received from Tokio shows that tri-daily telegraphic weather reports from the whole of the empire have been gathered since 1883. For many months past these have been published in the daily newspapers. The number of telegraphic reporting stations in Japan is thirty-one, and from these, together with five stations in Corea and China, with less

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frequent exchanges from Manila in the Philippines and Vladivostok in Siberia, the reports are made up. Since the first published list of observations made in 1874, the climatological values obtained have become more and more exact. The apparatus used in the central observatory, which is situated at the highest point within the old castle in Tokio, is of the finest and most sensitive sort from Europe and the United States, supplemented by special instruments of native manufacture. Direct magnetic observations have been carried on for several years, with self-registering and other apparatus. The study of marine meteorology and that of seismic disturbances is also attended to. The official Government work is supplemented, with great popular benefit, by the Meteorological Society, which publishes a journal, of which we have received several copies. It has been found that the theories of meteorology which, in other parts of the world, have been supposed to be fixed principles of the science, are only of moderate value for the Japanese archipelago. The forecasts depend largely upon the skill of the superintendent, and are much more successful as relates to rain than to wind. Thus far about seventy per cent. of the predictions made in Tokio have been found to be correct. In addition to the value of the cautionary signals displayed from forty-nine stations, the results of the system of observations are frequently inquired for by architects, engineers, medical men, and surveyors. The director, Mr. J. Araii, is ably assisted by Mr. Ernest Knipping, a German gentleman whose writings, along with our own Prof. T. C. Mendenhall's, are of standard value. The monthly publications of the Central Observatory are amply supplied with maps and diagrams, with letter-press in English. The more popular *Meteorological Journal*, for local reading, now in its eighth year, is in Japanese.

—M. Jules Barbey d'Aurevilly, one of the last, or the very last, of the French romantic writers of the time of Théophile Gautier and his *gilet rouge*, has just died in Paris. The date of his birth is not exactly known, but it was some time between the years 1802 and 1808. He began to write in 1825, but all of his earlier works failed of success. In 1830 he disappeared, like Waring, and was unseen and unheard of for twenty years. In 1850 or 1851 he came to light again, and filled many columns of the *Pays*, in the course of the next few years, with sonorous and dithyrambic criticism, of the sort with which his time and his school have made the world familiar, and even weary. A dozen or more novels followed, of which, perhaps, the best known is 'L'Ensorcelée.' It is not so much as a man of letters that he will be missed, but as a man of letters who was also a relic—a relic of romanticism, of dandyism, of a certain picturesque type of Catholicism and of aristocracy. His death is sure to set running a current of anecdote and reminiscence, much of which will doubtless be interesting reading. The stream, in fact, is already beginning to flow.

MOTLEY'S CORRESPONDENCE.

The Correspondence of John Lothrop Motley, D.C.L. Edited by George William Curtis. With portrait. 2 vols. Harper & Bros. 1889.

THE correspondence of an illustrious man, printed often more because of his reputation won in some one field than for the interest of the letters in themselves, is an unfair test of his intellectual ability or social attractiveness; and in the case of an historian in whose work the telling mental qualities are largely different from those which give vivacity and brilliancy to impromptu letters, this test works with special incompleteness. Motley certainly, in addressing his wife, children, and a few intimate friends, did not write for immortality. He had not the point in style, the variety in interests, the copiousness of opinions which give charm and body to a collection of personal letters; and, although he mingled in the society of famous men and fine women, and was near to great events, he had not that quickness of eye and literary power of brief description which could have painted the historical scene before him in a picturesque and enlivening manner. His methods of conceiving history were alien to such a task; he required a large canvas and heroic figures, and something of the breadth that goes with the spectacular, before he could deploy his mind and imagination. And, besides, there was so considerable a moral element in his enthusiasms, a sense of the forces of history so deeply underlying his serious work, that he was to a certain extent disarmed and taken at a disadvantage in the presence of the personal, the immediate and fragmentary character of passing and incomplete events. These two volumes, consequently, notwithstanding their real interest in many ways, are a disappointment, if any one looks in them for more than illustrations and fuller knowledge of the man's character as it was in daily and private life; but if one is content to look for no more than this, they afford the portrait of an American whom his fellow-countrymen will be more proud to acknowledge after their perusal —one who did honor to his country by his personal bearing among men, by his living and thinking in ordinary ways, quite as much as by his literary fame.

He belongs distinctly to a type that is passing away, or at least is suffering such changes outwardly and inwardly as to be taking on a new form. He was one of the Boston boys when Boston was more preëminently a commercial town, with all that means on the social side of life. He was educated at Bancroft's Northampton school and at Harvard College, and at an early age went to Europe for legal study at German universities and for travel, and of all these opportunities he made a serious use. The first stirring of his historical imagination and the beginning of his fluent and ample style may readily be discerned in his pleasant letters home, which are what such letters from such a youth should be, but have only autobiographical value. The trial of his talents in novel-writing, and the reasons why he selected the Netherlands as the scene of his historical labors, are not touched upon in these letters, and it may be said that the collection suffers from the lack of continuity in the series, both here and in later life. After his departure for Europe, however, there is sufficient material for the reader to make out plainly and fully the quiet student life he led, the absorption of his mind in his work, and the visitings of doubt and melancholy which must attack a solitary scholar before the recognition of his powers by others, in judgment upon definite work already accomplished, gives him confidence in himself. The publication of his first volumes, from which he apparently did not hope for success, settled his position as an author to be widely and seriously regarded, and he set to work to continue the series with a renewed energy which shows how much he was invigorated by the warm applause he had received. Of his labors in the workshop, however, the letters afford the very slightest glimpses—they are singularly free from the burden of his daily tasks, and, while we might desire to see more of the student at his desk, the fear of egotism seems to have haunted him to such a degree that he spoke of himself and his doings, even to his wife, with an uneasy consciousness, and was always glad to drop the subject. His occasional separation from his family and his long absence from home required him, nevertheless, to give some account of his days, and to this necessity the correspondence is mainly due.

The more entertaining chapters are naturally those which detail, almost like a diary of dinner engagements, his association with leading persons in England, and, more narrowly, upon the Continent. In London society he was received with great cordiality from many, and with courtesy and distinction from all. What was his charm it is impossible to discover from his own account of the matter, and others have not told us; but he must have been singularly agreeable to have won and kept the consideration of the circle in which he moved. He was interested first of all in the eminent literary men and statesmen of the day, and in the group which was noted for kindly disposition to Americans. His portraits of these people lack condensation and vividness; he was better at describing a character than a personality, and consequently he has not written anything of them specially remarkable. It is rather the tone in which he speaks than the words he uses which exhibits their impression on him, and this is necessarily diffused and unquotable. No man is more agreeably presented than the aged Lord Lyndhurst, who at the time of the war wrote to him as a fellow-countryman, remembering his birth on American soil; but this characterization is not made in any one passage. Mrs. Norton, too, and Lady William Russell are similarly a part of the pleasure which the letters give, as a picture of humane and hospitable English life, but they are mingled with the various scenes. Of others of more public note, Thackeray, Macaulay, Brougham, Palmerston, Milman, Hallam, the books are already so full that these slight reminiscences of them are neither fresh nor informing. Thackeray appears as "a colossal infant—smooth, white, shiny ringlety hair (flaxen, alas, with advancing years), a roundish face, with a little dab of a nose upon which it is a perpetual wonder how he keeps his spectacles, a sweet, but rather piping voice, with something of a childish treble about it, and a very tall, slightly stooping figure," and without any distinction in his talk more than in his white choker. Macaulay is a sick man, whenever seen, with the cough which foreboded the end, a blank face, and "as it were badly lighted," nothing luminous in his eyes nor impressive in his brows, a spacious forehead "scooped entirely away in the region where benevolence ought to be, while beyond rise reverence, firmness, and self-esteem like Alps on Alps," while the eyes beneath are almost closed with swollen lids. Motley, who did not wish to talk, did not find him too much an autocrat of the conversation. Brougham, with snow-white and shiny hair, a knobby and bumpy head, furrowed with age, and a vast mouth, is principally remembered by this observer for his incredible nose, which he wagged like an elephant's proboscis. These, however, are all familiar features, and even "Dizzy," as Mrs. Norton describes him, "with a black velvet coat lined with satin, purple trousers with a gold band running down the outside seam, a scarlet waistcoat, long lace ruffles falling down to the tips of his fingers, white gloves with several brilliant rings outside them, and long black ringlets rippling down his shoulders," would not be strange except for the impossibility that the eye labors under in endeavoring to retain his youthful figure as a

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thing to be believed in. Of more interest is the sketch of Maximilian just before his departure to Mexico: "About thirty, with an adventurous disposition, some imagination, a turn for poetry," an author "not without talent," who "relieves his prose jog-trot by breaking into a canter of poetry; an adorer of bullfights, who half regrets the Inquisition, and considers the Duke of Alva everything noble and chivalrous, and the most-abused of men." The Comte de Paris is better treated—"a model of what a young prince ought to be in manner, in character, in conversation, in accomplishments. To be sure, he bribed me by his unaffected, sincere, and enthusiastic interest in my country; a more loyal and ardent *American* does not exist than this King's son." Other royal personages are to be seen on the page, always through republican eyes, and usually not to their advantage, except in the case of the frank and straightforward King of Holland and his refined and womanly Queen, always the unassuming friend of the best within her horizon.

To his countrymen, however, the most welcome part of these volumes is not what they tell of the great ones of the earth, or of the social grace and hospitableness of England in its highest circles; but rather the fulness and clearness with which they reveal the unspoiled American heart which, through long residence in foreign lands and in the midst of aristocratic fascinations, Motley kept beating in his breast. No word can now be breathed against his patriotism or his entire adhesion to and belief in the democracy of his own country. His sketch of Austrian society, in which birth alone gives station, might be expected to contain some comment from one whose chief claim to attention was not diplomacy but literature. He could not be flattered, he says, to be received as a diplomatist when he could not be as a man. In his reflections upon English aristocracy he is not less loyal to the traditions in which he was bred. He acknowledged himself to be a spectator in London, and had no desire to be "one of themselves." After stating the committal of America absolutely to the future of democracy, he goes on to say:

"For me, I like democracy. I don't say it is pretty or genteel or jolly. But it has a reason for existing, and is a fact in America, and is founded in the immutable principle of reason and justice. Aristocracy certainly presents more brilliant social phenomena, more luxurious social enjoyments. Such a system is very cheerful for a few thousand select specimens out of a few hundred millions of the human race. It has been my lot and yours to see how much splendor, how much intellectual and physical refinement, how much enjoyment of the highest character has been created by the English aristocracy; but what a price is paid for it. Think of a human being working all day long, from six in the morning to seven at night, for fifteen or twenty kreutzers a day in Moravia or Bohemia, Ireland or Yorkshire, for forty or fifty years, to die in the workhouse at last! This is the lot of the great majority all over Europe; and yet they are of the same flesh and blood, the *natural* equals in every way of the Howards and Stanleys, Esterhazys and Liechtensteins."

And again he says:

"I don't think there is any danger of my losing my American feelings and my Republican tastes, and I trust I can look on these scenes of exquisite and intelligent luxury objectively, as the Germans say, without confounding the characters of spectator and actor. . . . Much as I can appreciate and enjoy æsthetically, sentimentally, and sensuously the infinite charm, refinement, and grace of English life, especially country life, yet I feel too keenly what a fearful price is paid by the English people in order that this splendid aristocracy, with their parks and castles, and shootings and fishings and fox-huntings, their stately and unlimited hospitality, their lettered ease and learned leisure, may grow fat, ever to be in danger of finding my judgment corrupted by it. At the same time it is as well not to indulge too long and too copiously in the Circean draughts of English hospitality."

Doubtless he was fortified in his patriotism by the intense passion aroused by the civil war. In all he has to say of that conflict (and he has very much to say) there is the touch of a burning enthusiasm, of an overflowing interest, of personal anxiety and hope, of a home-felt share in the defeats and triumphs of the country's cause. He had the misfortune to differ from his father upon these topics, and he did not permit himself to speak of them to him; but in his letters to other members of the family he gave full expression to his feelings. He perceived with great definiteness the lines of the conflict, and especially the contest of moral forces and the issues of civilization involved in them. In devoting his life to the story of liberty in the Netherlands he had gone to school at the fountain; and he was so grounded in the love of the ideas the national cause stood for, as well as in the affection for his own country which life abroad in his case could only intensify, that he was bound, as by a natural law, to throw himself heart and soul into the Northern cause. He was able in consequence to state the question so clearly and forcibly in England as to do great service there, before he returned to this country to be near the scene of affairs; and after his appointment to Vienna he kept in close connection with that body of Englishmen who, with Bright and Mill at their head, befriended our interests.

The episode of his return home in 1861 is one of the capital chapters in the volumes. He represents the scene, the feelings, the confusion of the time, as a part thereof; and, whether at Boston or Washington, his pulse tells the beat of the hour. The optimism of the nation at its first awakening is reproduced in him with almost amusing completeness; and throughout the war the readiness with which he recoiled from the depression of defeat, and the vigor of his faith in our triumph, are attractive traits of his character. The anecdote of his finding himself in so oppressive a solitude when he received the news of the fall of Vicksburg is pathetic; he "screeched it through the keyhole" to his daughter; but "you," he says, addressing Dr. Holmes, "who were among people grim and self-contained usually—who, I *trust*, were *falling* on each other's necks in the public streets, and shouting with tears in their eyes and triumph in their hearts—can picture my isolation." This is the contemporary life of those years still warm on the page; and many of these pages are dedicated to the joys and sorrows, public and private, of the time, in a way to deepen regret in our minds at the memory of the unmerited trials which so true an American heart suffered at the hands of our national Government.

His estimate of the men of the war is also a close rendering of contemporary feeling, especially with regard to the military hope of the hour, Scott or McClellan or Grant. The most interesting of these, however, is the impression he obtained of Lincoln, whom he saw only for a short hour at the opening of the fight. He was struck at once by the substantial characteristics of the President, and, in his case, this was notable; there is nowhere any wonder expressed that a "backwoodsman" had come to so responsible a place, but only gratitude that an honest and true man was at the helm. He writes of him as early as June, 1862, with noticeable accuracy: "I think Mr. Lincoln embodies singularly well the healthy American mind. He revolts at extreme measures, and moves in a steady way to the necessary end. He reads the signs of the times, and will never go faster than the people at his back. So his slowness seems sometimes like hesitation; but I have not a doubt that when the people wills it, he will declare that will." And after the assassination, recurring to his first impression of Lincoln, he writes: "He seemed to have a window in his breast. There was something almost childlike in his absence of guile and affectation of any kind. Of course, on the few occasions when I had the privilege of conversing with him, it was impossible for me to pretend to form an estimate as to his intellectual power, but I was struck with his simple wisdom, his straightforward, unsophisticated common sense. What our republic, what the whole world, has to be grateful for, is that God has endowed our chief magistrate, at such a momentous period of history, with so lofty a moral nature and with so loving and forgiving a disposition." Perhaps in all these few lines of encomium which from time to time he writes upon the leading figures of the war, we may discern the hero-loving imagination working before the facts were accomplished; but it was Motley's good fortune to have nourished his mind with contemplation of such men in the great struggle of the Netherlands, and he was thus in a position more readily to appreciate them.

It remains to say a word about Motley's friendship with Bismarck, which is a leading topic in the volumes. They were college friends, or even schoolboys, together, and the tie which bound them was this early one cherished through years by both of them. They recognized the vast difference in their political creeds, but they also agreed that the condition of affairs in Prussia and America differed as widely as their views, and their friendship fortunately was so purely personal that opinion did not enter into it as any part of the cement. Bismarck's letters are almost boyish, or old-boyish, in spirit, and are half rollicking. They show the Chancellor out of his gravity; but this is only to see him more near. The accounts which Motley furnishes of the household arrangements and private habits of the Bismarcks fill out the picture; and if there is something of the German country baron and of squirearchy in them, this is the homeliness of truth. Bismarck appears in a more amiable and noble light; his sincerity is much dwelt upon, his force and grasp are rather indicated than shown, but the conversation died on the air that heard it. The most valuable passage is the following:

"He said he used when younger to think himself a clever fellow enough, but now he was convinced that nobody had any control over events—that nobody was really powerful or great; and it made him laugh when he heard himself complimented as wise, foreseeing, and exercising great influence over the world. A man in the situation in which he had been placed was obliged, while outsiders, for example, were speculating whether to-morrow it would be rain or sunshine, to decide promptly, It will rain or it will be fine; and to act accordingly with all the forces at his command. If he guessed right, all the world said, What sagacity—what prophetic power! If wrong, all the old women would have beaten him with broomsticks. If he had learned nothing else, he said he had learned modesty."

It may be said generally—and it is pleasant to be able to say such a thing of a collection of private letters—that this correspondence presents every one whom it brings forward in a way to win regard for him and not to lessen it. The social reminiscences, bare as they often are, are pervaded by hospitable and kindly feelings, and the literary and political portions are without any disagreeable traits, but, on the contrary, show Motley's friendliness and

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patriotism, and a readiness to take men at the best possible, which now honor his memory. It is, nevertheless, his own reputation that will be increased and endeared by these proofs of his devotion. His belief in his own people, his anxiety to serve them in places of honorable ambition or in private station, and his humane and sanguine temperament in the great conflict of his generation, his laboriousness in his studies, and his unaffected friendliness with many persons of intellect, refinement, and good-will, make us the more glad to know that he remains, after all his disappointments, to the last line of his pen unalienated from ourselves.

We have observed many misreadings in the text, which are so unusually numerous in a work of this kind that we here correct the more important. Vol. i: 35, Tieck's *Phantasus;* 127, canal *smells;* 169, *successively;* 182, *sixteenth* century; 190, l. 6 from foot, *reviewed?;* 274, marshalling *with* his baton; 355, déjà *lu;* 359, l. 5 from foot, *plant.* Vol. ii: 7, lieutenant-*colonel;* 268, *Laugel;* 313, "dynastische Ausbeutung" is translated *prejudices;* 315, "sonderbar" is translated *immoral;* 317, l. 3 from foot, *unconscionably;* 325, l. 8, *passion* malheureuse; 336, l. 20, *paternally;* 355, l. 6, *Thursday;* 399, l. 16, *alternation.* The index has noticeable defects, but we mention only the startling entry of the Boott Society, which turns out to be the Boston Saturday Club! Some of these errors appear to have resulted from the English manufacture of the book.

NATIVE LIFE IN INDIA.

Indian Life, Religious and Social. By John Campbell Oman. London: T. Fisher Unwin. 1889.

THE materials of which this little book is composed have not been brought together from remote or out-of-the-way sources. Nevertheless, there is a value attaching to them which, as a rule, is grievously wanting in learned and philosophic dissertations on the religion and philosophy of the Hindus. They consist of sketches, drawn direct from the life, of the manner in which the Hindu religion, as it exists to-day, affects, in his daily life, in his acts, and in his thoughts, the Hindu as he exists to-day. The treatment does not pretend to be systematic or exhaustive; but just as a sketch is, oftentimes, a great deal more suggestive than the finished picture, so is it here. These random side-lights thrown on the moral and social condition of the people of India disclose in a very striking way that moral and intellectual helplessness which caused them to succumb, and keeps them in subjection to a handful of alien conquerors.

If we take an average Englishman and contrast him with an average Indian, there is no such difference between the two as to account for their relative positions. The Indian possesses, perhaps, the quicker and more agile intellect of the two. He is, man for man, not less brave, not less diligent in his vocation, not less quick in the acquisition of knowledge. Whence, then, comes the unquestionable superiority of the man of the Western world? It comes, we should say, from his interpretation of life and the world taken as a whole. All Englishmen, no matter how they might classify themselves in a religious census, are practically of one faith in this respect—that they regard Man and Nature as subject to an order intended for the use and advantage of reasonable creatures. Hence, except in cases when the sense of self-interest throws his mind into a state of torpor, the Englishman cannot rest content with a state of things which shocks or baffles his reason. This logical curiosity to get at the reason of a thing is the spring and motive power of all which the Western world vaguely describes as "progress." It is just this reasonable interpretation of the universe which is wholly absent from the moral and intellectual conceptions of the native of India. The universe, in his eyes, is literally a region of Chaos and old Night, regarding the activities of which it is impossible to predicate anything with certainty. The invisible world is peopled by countless myriads of lawless and capricious beings, who can be bribed or otherwise compelled to put their supernatural powers to unjust and malicious uses as readily as a corrupt and underpaid state official.

Unity and continuousness of purpose are not to be expected from a people under the domination of such a belief as this. Living in a world thus thickly beset with hidden dangers, the Hindu feels that his only chance of safety is to go on for ever doing the thing which he, his father, his grandfather, and all their fathers before them have been accustomed to do. "Custom" is the authority to which all men bow. They have sacred books, as all the world knows, but as the power of reading and interpreting these is practically extinct throughout India, except in two or three places of learning, there exists no standard of "custom." The number of castes, for example, was originally four; at present they certainly number not less than four thousand, and probably more; and the amount continues to increase because any little section of men who follow a trade in common, or who have a common way of propitiating the gods, or who eat together, become, after a brief persistence in the practice, a new and distinct caste. There being no passage from one caste to another, it follows that this rapid multiplication of castes splits up the community into a multitude of little organisms, each possessing its own separate principle of life, and walled off, so to speak, from every other. Practically, the first and greatest duty of the Hindu is to preserve his caste. He cannot evade this obligation even when he has lost all faith in the reality of caste, for a Hindu who has lost his caste becomes an out-caste in the true etymological sense of the word. No one, either of his own or any other caste, can give or sell him food; no one can receive him into his house; no one, either parents, wife, or children, can hold any intercourse with him unless they, too, are prepared to become outcasted in consequence. And the preservation of caste means perfect submission to whatever is customary, no matter how gross, monstrous, and irrational it may be. The words which Shakspere has put into the mouth of *Coriolanus* are exactly descriptive of the intellectual and moral anarchy in which this slavish reverence for custom has landed the Hindus:

> "What custom wills, in all things did we do 't,
> The dust on antique time would lie unswept,
> And mountainous error be too highly heap'd,
> For truth to overpeer."

Here, by way of illustration, is a "specimen" from these mountains of error taken from Mr. Oman's pages:

"During an excessively dry summer, as I was sitting one evening in the open air, the clouds began gathering rapidly overhead. Every one was anxiously looking out for rain. The sultry heat had caused an outbreak of sickness, and the price of food had gone up considerably. I remarked to a native standing beside me that we would now in all probability have the much desired rain. He looked up towards the dark, overcast sky above, and then, shaking his head doubtfully, expressed his fear that the rascally *bunniahs*—vendors of food, grains, and other articles of consumption—would not let it rain. This idea was a new one to me. I was familiar with the old Hindu notion that the dark clouds are malicious demons who obstruct or intercept the rainfall, and are only overcome by Indra's flashing thunderbolts, which rend them asunder in the interests of the human race and the parched and gaping earth. But I had never heard that the bunniahs were credited with meteorological powers of so very important a character. I pressed the man to explain his remark. 'Don't you know,' he said, 'that it is to the interest of the bunniahs that the prices of all articles of consumption should be as high as possible, and that rain should not fall. Well, to attain their object, they make cakes of wheat flour and other things, and then deliberately deal with these heaven-sent gifts in such a manner as to offend the gods and make them withhold the rain.'"

The Hindu conception of Nature is, in short, the exact antithesis of that which is regarded as axiomatic by the Western world. Not only do the ideas of uniformity, persistence, unvarying succession of cause and effect find no place in it, but Nature is looked upon as in all its operations guided by an unpredictable caprice. And what is supposed to be true of Nature is no less true of Man. In the absence of any authoritative standard of belief and conduct, it is impossible to exaggerate the wild chaos of beliefs which possesses the population of India. These eccentricities would rapidly degenerate into practices of unspeakable atrocity and sensuality but for the strong restraining hands of the British Government. Only a few months ago a man was tried for the murder of his wife. It was proved at the trial that he had, with the consent of his victim, and in the presence of his fellow-villagers—the local police assisting at the ceremony—gouged out the eyes of the wretched woman on the strength of a dream which assured him that if he did so the eyes would be replaced by eyes of pure gold. These crazy superstitions, combined with the benumbing effect of caste restrictions, appear to have destroyed, at least for the time, the power of sustained and coherent thought in the Hindu mind. It is altogether lacking in initiative and originality, as is clearly seen in the efforts of the "educated classes" (so called) to provide themselves with a religion in lieu of that which their English education has destroyed.

The academical feebleness and languor of these endeavors is, perhaps, the most distressing symptom of the present condition of India. Mr. Oman has devoted two or three of his best chapters to an account of some of these, and clearly perceives their unreality and uselessness. The educated Hindu has learned, in his college days, that it is a bad thing for a nation to break with its historic past—that religious reformations are effected, not by a fundamental change of creed, but by going back to the primitive sources of national faith—and, on the strength of these propositions, tries to bring about a religious revival by affecting to believe in the divine inspiration of the Vedas. It is all a make-believe—the very theory of inspiration being borrowed from missionary teaching—and, consequently, brings, and can bring, no fruit to perfection. In short, the reason of the Hindus, from long centuries of acquiescence in unreasoning superstition, has become so enervated that it cannot be roused resolutely to grapple with the mysteries of existence or the practical problems of conduct. All it aspires to do is to play with these questions—to store the memory with the opinions of Western thinkers, without caring to assimilate or digest them. So far as there is any movement of thought in British India, it is "all borrowed—all second-hand roar;" and while this state of things continues, and India is not assailed from without, British domination is in no danger of overthrow.

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HARE'S AMERICAN CONSTITUTIONAL LAW.

American Constitutional Law. By J. I. Clark Hare, LL.D. In two volumes. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1889. Pp. lxxxi, 1,400.

JUDGE STORY'S treatise upon the Constitution of the United States, written more than fifty years ago, has now, in many parts of it, a remote and inadequate quality. Judge Cooley's excellent volume is concerned with "the constitutional limitations which rest upon the legislative power of *the States.*" We have here, in Judge Hare's book upon 'American Constitutional Law,' a competent and worthy exposition, in the hundredth year of our national existence, of that body of legal doctrine to which the Constitution of the United States has given rise in the aspect which it presents to-day. It is a book of the first importance, dealing in a large way with great and difficult questions, yet careful, close of texture, and showing a keen discrimination.

It is divided into fifty-nine "lectures," for it embodies a course of lectures delivered at the Law School of the University of Pennsylvania; and it is a multiplication by four of that smaller volume, printed merely "for the use of the class" in 1885 and little known here, which has attracted such favorable attention from English critics like Dicey and Bryce. The keynote of the book is struck in the short preface, in which the author takes notice of "*the growth* of the Constitution of the United States," and adds, after adverting to the war and the questions which it raised:

> "A vast and untravelled field was thus thrown open for critical examination and research, and years may pass before it is thoroughly explored. Under such circumstances the duty of a student of public law is both difficult and obvious. Jurisprudence is a science which must suffer unless pursued with a single eye to truth; and, while the decisions of a court of last resort are conclusive between the parties, they are also steps in the process by which an accurate conception of public and private law may ultimately be attained. A writer who passes them in review should therefore . . . not hesitate to state his own [opinions] and the grounds on which they have been formed. Should he err in such an endeavor, he may still hope that his mistakes will be corrected by abler thinkers, and may indirectly contribute to form the public opinion which, in the long run, guides legislators and courts."

We have, then, a treatise which recognizes in the Constitution of the United States an instrument adapted to the needs of a growing and developing nation, intended, as the author quotes Sir Edward Coke, "to live and take effect in all successions of ages." And it is a treatise which, in stating the adjudicated law, does not hesitate here and there to accompany it by searching criticism. Judge Hare is no mere stater of decisions. He perceives clearly the exact worth of judicial decisions, and so their frequent shortcoming and inadequacy; and his long experience upon the bench gives weight to all his comments. "The current of decision," he tells us, "sometimes varies like the tides, as every lawyer finds who relies on precedents."

Roughly, the book may be separated into eight parts, of which one deals with introductory and historical matter, another with provisions in the nature of a bill of rights, another with questions relating to jurisdiction and procedure, and others with the general topics of taxation, eminent domain, the regulation of commerce, war, and money. These are not altogether the divisions of the book itself, and they do not altogether follow this order. But a sufficiently accurate notion of the contents is got when it is said that something under a fifth of the work is given respectively to the first and third subjects in the above order, and about twice as much to the second; and that the rest, somewhat under a quarter of the book, is divided among the other titles; the first two of these being a little more fully dealt with than the others. The first part in the above division will interest not merely the lawyer, but any intelligent reader. The author is full in his treatment—a little too full, some may think; but he is always clear, agreeable, and instructive. It is the old story, but it is illustrated by many striking suggestions, as in the part where the writer points out that, a hundred years ago, the English had already in a sense made the acts of King, Lords, and Commons subject to the test of law, unless when they acted conjointly in making an act of Parliament; and "all that remained for the framers of the American Constitution was to render that which was true of the several parts of the English Government applicable to the Government of the United States as a whole." The essential character of our Revolution as being no revolution at all, but only the breaking of links with the old country, to the end that we might continue to live as before, is pointed out; and also the fact that our several States never had a recognized, separate national existence. The author gives life to his pages by the clear expression now and then of his opinions upon such topics as the views and personal qualities of Jefferson, the Chinese immigration, the condition of the civil service, and the ridiculous rules of our political parties which operate effectually to exclude from primary meetings the very salt of the organizations.

In considering the principal amendments to the Constitution, and those clauses in the body of the instrument relating to citizenship, the obligations of contracts, *ex-post-facto* laws and bills of attainder, which have been collectively called, sometimes, a bill of rights, Judge Hare gives a wide scope to their remedial and protecting efficacy. Far as the Supreme Court has gone in what it includes under the notion of a "contract" and a "law" which impairs it, Judge Hare would go further; and he also supports the wide conception of an *ex-post-facto* law and a bill of attainder which is given in Cummings vs. Missouri and *ex parte* Garland. On the other hand, he seems to adopt the restricted meaning of the privileges and immunities of a citizen of the United States given by the majority of the court in the Slaughter-house cases: "They include," he says, "whatever the Constitution expressly or impliedly confers, and nothing that it does not grant." Judge Hare, like Mr. Justice Miller, seems to give too wide a scope to the *decision* in the Dred Scott case. We take that to have been accurately given by two learned writers, since distinguished as Mr. Justice Gray and Judge Lowell, in a pamphlet of thirty years ago. Mr. Bryce puts it in the same way in his recent admirable book. Instead of its being true that it was then held that "a man of African descent was not and could not be a citizen of a State or of the United States," the case went no further in its *decision* than to hold that when a slave is taken by his master to a place where slavery is prohibited, and then comes back to a slave State and is a resident there, and is held by the highest court there to be a slave, he will be so regarded by the courts of the United States. Of course, the *dicta* of that case are a wholly different matter. In connection with remarks touching this case, Judge Hare observes that in this country "an erroneous interpretation of the Constitution [by the Supreme Court] is conclusive on the Legislature." Why should that be so? Conclusive, of course, as regards the case decided. But why should not the Legislature, like any jurist or private citizen, while bowing to all decisions of the courts, persist in its denial of a false interpretation of the fundamental law? Certainly, the text of this permanent instrument is one thing, and the interpretation of it by an ever-shifting body of judges is a very different thing. As Jackson might rightfully veto the new bank charter when he disputed the interpretation of the Constitution made by the Supreme Court, although we may well believe that his legal conclusion was wrong, so for sufficient cause Congress may at any time, in the exercise of its sound judgment, rightfully present, by new legislation, a new question for the courts; or may put its judgment on record in the form of a resolution. The Constitution is final, but the interpretation of it by a court can never be final, except as it is approved. It must always be subject to the searching and revising judgment of the learned, and to what Judge Hare has called "the public opinion which in the long run guides legislators and courts." Meantime, prudence and the requirements of orderly administration will often keep a legislative body far inside of what it may rightfully do.

Judge Hare has a full and very learned consideration of the subject of money and the legal-tender decisions. He supports the result reached in the later decisions of the Supreme Court, and with weighty argument. But he is far from approving the view that it is the power to borrow money which supports the making of Government notes a legal tender. He rests the power upon the right to regulate foreign and inter-State commerce, which is indeed a sufficient foundation. We commend his powerful arguments to writers who find themselves able to condemn the judgments of the Supreme Court on this subject with the easy confidence of Mr. John Fiske in his latest volume. This subject is not a new one to our author. Twenty-five years ago, in Borie vs. Trott, in 5 Philadelphia Reports, Judge Hare sustained the constitutionality of the legal-tender statutes of that time in an opinion which is not surpassed by anything that has since appeared.

The discussion of that fast-developing and portentous topic, the regulation of inter-State commerce, is full of instruction, but we can barely refer to it. Judge Hare has nothing to say on the curious matter of the legal status of our Indians. We wish that he might be led, in another edition of his book, to discuss more extensively a subject which has never yet received the full exploration which it deserves—namely, the precise nature of the question which the Supreme Court of the United States has in hand when it is considering the constitutionality of an act of Congress, and how far it is a different question when it is reviewing the act of a State legislature as touching a Federal question. But we must stop. It is easy to see that Judge Hare's book is the most important one of our time upon the subject which it treats.

The United States: Facts and Figures Illustrating the Physical Geography of the Country, and its Material Resources. By J. D. Whitney. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1889.

IN selecting Prof. J. D. Whitney to write the article upon the Physical Geography and Statistics of the United States, for their new edition of the 'Encyclopædia Britannica,' the editors made a wise choice. Among the older

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geologists of the country he stands in the foremost rank, both in point of learning and of wide practical experience. Of that branch of his profession which occupies itself with the present relief of the earth's surface, its physical geography, he has made a special study, and, what is comparatively rare among those who aspire to be considered students of pure science, he has occupied himself largely with the problems of geology which have a direct practical bearing upon the development of the mineral resources of the country; the work which he published in 1854, upon the Metallic Wealth of the United States, having been for a long time the only trustworthy and scientific account of our wonderful mineral resources.

Those who are personally acquainted with Prof. Whitney will hardly be surprised to learn that, as stated in his preface, he feels that an injustice was done him by the cutting down and condensation of his article, "so that the meaning was often obscured and sometimes even rendered entirely unintelligible," and that he has republished the article, as originally presented, as a separate volume, a handsome octavo of over 450 pages, entitled 'The United States.' It consists mainly of a full and able discussion of the physical geography, and a briefer account of the mineral resources, with short chapters upon population and immigration, public lands, agricultural products, manufactures and foreign commerce, which were bodily excised by the editors; to which have been added, as an appendix, able papers on geographical discovery, cartographic progress, and barometric hypsometry (or the methods of determining the elevations of mountains). It is evident that, for the sake of the conciseness necessary for such a work as an encyclopædia, the editors are justified in omitting from an article such portions as are not of essential importance to the elucidation of the subject treated, but, in changing the language of an author, too great care cannot be taken lest his meaning be thereby rendered obscure or even unintelligible. An excellent illustration of how slight a change may accomplish this is unintentionally afforded by Prof. Whitney on page 331 of his own work, where, by printing "it" instead of "its gold," the meaning of the quotation in which it occurs is entirely reversed. The safer course in such cases is to submit all changes to the author's approval; but this is not always practicable.

Prof. Whitney's work in general bears the impress of great erudition, in both a literary and a scientific sense, and of a mind capable of broad and impartial generalization. Hence the occasional instances of a want of charity towards fellow-workers who may differ with him scientifically or personally are the more striking by contrast with the general tone of his writing. Such an instance is found in his characterization (page 321) of those who hold that trees once existed on the Western prairies, but have been destroyed by fire. His own view, that the treelessness is due to the exceeding fineness of the soil, which is known to be unfavorable to forest growth, seems more in accordance with observed facts; but the former view is still held by men occupying important positions in geological circles. He still holds to the theory that the iron ores of Lake Superior are of eruptive origin, in spite of recent investigations which have convinced all other geologists of prominence of the contrary view. In his account of the Comstock lode he quotes freely from the publications of Church and Lord, but makes no allusion to the intermediate and scientifically more important work of Becker. Again, in his admirable sketch of the progress of American cartography during the past half century, he completely ignores the general topographical map of the United States which is being made by the United States Geological Survey, and whose progress, although its publication as a topographical map has not yet been authorized by Congress, might readily have been ascertained from the annual reports of the Director. It would have been interesting had Prof. Whitney extended the comparative analysis of methods and results which he has made of the previous surveys, much to the disadvantage of those under Wheeler, to this later undertaking, which has the element of permanence wanting in the others, and which hence bids fair to be carried to completion.

The above are but minor blemishes in an able and admirable work, which forms a most valuable contribution to the literature of popular science. It is to be regretted, in the interest of the reading public, that Prof. Whitney, instead of confining himself to his article as originally written, did not enlarge his article on Mineral Resources to the fulness of his classic work on Metallic Wealth above mentioned; the annual value of our metallic products having increased during the third of a century which has elapsed since the publication of the latter from 79 to 250 millions of dollars.

The Authorship of the Fourth Gospel, and Other Critical Essays. Selected from the published papers of the late Ezra Abbot. Boston: Geo. H. Ellis. 1888. 8vo, pp. 501.

THIS collection of Dr. Abbot's papers will be welcomed by all critical students of the New Testament. Scattered about, as they were, in various periodicals, access to them was not easy, and their importance makes it desirable to have them within reach. It is hardly necessary to say that these essays are characterized by laborious research and conscientious discrimination. Whatever the subject Dr. Abbot discussed, no matter how minute the points involved, he bestowed on them an untiring care that was never satisfied till it had explored all accessible ground and questioned the most trustworthy authorities. His answers to inquiries of correspondents were as faithfully worked out as his articles in magazines. An illustration of his piety towards the details of his science is found in his little dissertation on the name of an editor of the Greek Testament, which appears on the title-page as G. D. T. M. D., "Gerhardus de Trajecto Mosae Doctor." As Trajectum Mosae is the Latin name of the Dutch town Maestricht, it had been assumed by many that the editor's name was Van Maestricht; Dr. Abbot shows, from about a hundred authorities, that he was a German (his grandfather having fled from his native city to Cologne), and wrote his name Von Mastricht. It is a small matter, but it is a specimen of his work; he owed much of his power to the necessity he felt of being accurate.

Most of the essays are discussions of the text of short New Testament passages or of editions of the Greek Testament. There is not one of these that does not contain digested collections of facts which it would cost any man great labor to make. Dr. Abbot's own accuracy made him a sharp observer of other men's inaccuracies. Mr. Burgon, a Fellow of Oriel College, Oxford, wrote a work in defence of the genuineness of the twelve last verses of the Gospel of Mark, in one of the appendices to which he maintained that there were certain notes of antiquity which infallibly set the Vatican manuscript before the Sinaitic. Dr. Abbot subjects his seven arguments to a searching examination, and, by an overwhelming array of facts, shows that not one of them can stand—a result which, in view of Mr. Burgon's confident and dictatorial tone, introduces the element of the humorous into the discussion. Tregelles, also, a man of very different calibre from Burgon, receives a like treatment from our critic, who, though courteous, was always outspoken. Some of these discussions are models of textual criticism. We can barely mention Dr. Abbot's exegetical work. His articles on the construction of Rom. ix. 5 (where, according to the common translation, Christ is said to be "God over all, blessed for ever") are mines of grammatical learning, and show at the same time a fine hermeneutical feeling, a delicate sympathy with his author's train of thought, and minute acquaintance with his literary style.

The principal paper in the collection is that on the authorship of the Fourth Gospel. In an essay of a hundred pages one could not treat the whole subject; Dr. Abbot confines himself to a few points in the external evidence, and deals especially with the question whether the Fourth Gospel is used by Justin Martyr and the early Gnostics. The value of the essay lies in the carefulness with which it sifts alleged citations from the Gospel, and its full discussion of the various explanations which have been given of the similarity between the evangelical text and passages in writers of the first half of the second century. The famous 'Supernatural Religion' receives the chastisement which its slovenliness richly deserve. Dr. Abbot's original contributions to the question discussed are most of them given in the form of notes at the end of the article. It would perhaps be going too far to say that he has finally settled the question of the quotations involved; but his array of evidence going to show that Justin used the Fourth Gospel is very strong, and no one can pass it over lightly. He makes a similar argument for the use of the Gospel by the Gnostic Basilides, A.D. 125; but here the testimony is less satisfactory.

The interest of these discussions for the literary history of the Fourth Gospel need not be pointed out. What is their bearing on the question of authorship? The use of the work by Justin, and especially by Basilides, would throw its composition back towards the year 100, and so far support the church tradition which ascribed it to the Apostle John. But this argument must not be pressed too far. A church tradition is not infallible; and if the literary conditions placed the composition of the Gospel before the death of John, still, the opinion which connected it with him might mean no more than that the author was believed to have derived his material wholly or in part from the Apostle. And, further, if it be supposed that the Apostle was the author of the Gospel, its value as a source for the life of Jesus must be judged of from its contents. If the Johannean authorship were established beyond doubt to-morrow, it is hardly probable that the opinions of critics respecting the discourses ascribed to Jesus would be thereby materially modified.

Hearty thanks are due to Prof. J. H. Thayer of the Harvard Divinity School for the friendly care he has bestowed on this memorial of one of the most eminent of modern New Testament critics. The book is well printed, and is provided with adequate indexes.

Archives of Maryland. Correspondence of Gov. Horatio Sharpe. Vol. I. Edited for the Maryland Historical Society by Wm. Hand Browne. Baltimore. 1888.

THE period covered by this work, 1753–1757, is

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more recent than that of the previous publications of the Maryland Historical Society, and also more replete with interesting and stirring events. The year 1754 saw the beginning of the struggle between France and England for the possession of North America, in the attempt by the French to carry out Galissonière's gigantic idea of uniting their settlements from the mouth of the St. Lawrence to the Gulf of Mexico by a cordon of military posts. In pursuance of this scheme, a small fort at the junction of the Allegheny and Monongahela Rivers was seized, awakening the liveliest alarm among the English colonists. Maryland and Virginia, from their proximity to the path of French invasion, felt especially concerned, and a force was sent out by Gov. Dinwiddie, under the command of Col. Washington. In a skirmish with a party of French led by De Jumonville, the latter was killed and his command dispersed; but Washington was soon after forced to capitulate at Great Meadows. The French always asserted that De Jumonville had been unfairly attacked while on a peaceful mission; and Washington was further mortified by a phrase inserted in the terms of capitulation, which spoke of the French officer's death as an "assassination"—a slur on the British arms which seemed to be admitted by Washington's acceptance of the terms and signature to the articles. He finally explained that one of his officers, in making an oral translation of the articles to him (as his own knowledge of French was imperfect), had softened the ugly word "assassination" into "death."

Sharpe's considerable military experience caused him to take the lead among his brother governors in directing and supplying the sinews of the war, which now began in earnest. He displayed the greatest energy and activity in organizing the campaign and obtaining and forwarding supplies. His incessant correspondence with the governors, the Proprietary, the chief officers, and the home authorities gives a most minute record of all events of interest. Especially did Sharpe afford a shining exception to Braddock's reproach of lukewarm support by the colonial authorities. He exerted himself to the utmost to further that unfortunate expedition, and, when all went wrong, to repair the disastrous effects of the defeat. Far from receiving hearty coöperation and support in his work, the Governor was hampered or opposed at every turn by the parsimonious course of the Assembly, which, after the tradition of representative bodies, used the purse-strings as its weapon against the Proprietary when they were at variance. Hence the unqualified expressions of disgust with the Burgesses which appear in Sharpe's letters to England. For instance, he calls them "men of small fortunes, no soul, and very mean capacities"; and again, in a letter to his brother, he congratulates himself on a prorogation of the Assembly, "that I have rid myself of a parcel of wretches whose company I begin sincerely to detest." We find him proposing to the home authorities solutions of the much-vexed question of how the colonies might be compelled to contribute to support the war for the common defence; in 1754 he suggested a stamp duty, which was tried with such ill-success eleven years later. We notice the appearance of several other germs which afterwards developed into the great struggle for independence.

The materials for the present volume have been taken from the manuscript letter-books of Sharpe, and a mass of letters to him, in the collection of the Historical Society; and in small part from the Calvert Papers, on whose recent discovery and acquisition the Society is to be congratulated. Like its predecessors, this volume is furnished with full and careful indexes, and is altogether an extremely valuable contribution to our knowledge of a most important period of American history. The State of Maryland has honored itself by the publication of these Archives, in which the historic sense, skilful and scrupulous editing, and admirable typography have been combined in an unusual degree. From this stage on, the support annually given to the enterprise must be even more cordial than heretofore, as the Revolutionary era is approached, and men and events come to view whose connection with our own time is plainly traceable.

A History of England. By the Rev. J. Franck Bright, D.D., Master of University College, Oxford. Period IV. Growth of Democracy. Victoria. 1837-1880. With maps and plans. E. P. Dutton & Co. 1888. Pp. 596.

We have at various times called attention to the admirable History of England by the Rev. J. Franck Bright, the successive volumes of which have appeared at intervals during the last fifteen years. The fourth volume, now before us, brings the work down to the year 1880, thus completing it. It is a work, as will be seen, of not far from the dimensions of Green's larger history, but is totally different in its character, being rather, in the old fashion of histories, carefully arranged by reigns and dynasties, and holding to the chronological plan as closely as is possible in so complicated a work. The two books supplement each other admirably, as the reader of Green's glowing pages often misses something of the methodical arrangement of the ordinary history. But Mr. Bright is by no means deficient in the qualities that go to make a popular historian. He tells his story extremely well, soberly, but with a good degree of animation, and his judgment is cool and sound.

The shape of the book is against it—it is too small for its thickness, and thus loses in attractiveness; but its accessories—index, chronological tables, etc.—are of the best. The present volume (1837-1880) will be found a remarkably full and satisfactory history of our times, occupying nearly 600 pages. In each administration we have a complete list of the members of the Government, and at the commencement of the volume there is a list of contemporary sovereigns. There are ten maps and plans, all good and some excellent. We think it a mistake, in the plan of the battle of Alma, to have the points of the compass inverted. It might be well if our school atlases had such a variety of arrangement as not to encourage the notion in children that the north is *up*, but for an isolated map it is misleading to disregard the prevailing convention. It is also a pity, in the map of the Southeast of Europe, that boundary lines are not given.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Austin, J. O. Ancestry of Thirty-three Rhode Islanders (born in the Eighteenth Century): also Twenty Charts of Roger Williams's Descendants to the Fifth Generation. Albany: Joel Munsell's Sons.
Baker, M. N. The Manual of American Water-Works. 1888. Engineering News.
Boyesen, H. H. Vagabond Tales. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co. $1.25.
Burnett, Frances Hodgson. Miss Crespigny: A Love Story. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros.
Caird, Mona. The Wing of Azrael. Frank F. Lovell & Co. 30 cents.
Devey, Louisa. Letters of the late Edward Bulwer, Lord Lytton, to his Wife. G. W. Dillingham.
Dunham, Dr. M. E. Here and Hereafter: This Life a Type of the Life to Come. Utica: William T. Smith.
Durand, J. New Materials for the History of the American Revolution. From Documents in the French Archives. Henry Holt & Co. $1.75.
Esperanto, Dr. An Attempt toward an International Language. Henry Holt & Co. 25 cents.
Genung, Prof. J. F. Handbook of Rhetorical Analysis. Studies in Style and Invention. Boston: Ginn & Co. $2.25.
Goethe. Faust: a Tragedy. 2d Part. Vol. II. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.25.
Gould, John. The Birds of Great Britain. The Birds of New Guinea. The Trochilidæ or Humming Birds. Each in 25 parts. London: Henry Sotheran & Co.; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Gozlan, L. Valentine: A Novel. The United Service Publishing Co. 25 cents.
Hartley, Dr. I. S. Sundays in the Adirondacks. Utica: William T. Smith.
Malory, Syr T. Le Morte Darthur. Faithfully Reprinted from the Original Edition (1485) of William Caxton. Edited by H. O. Sommer, Ph.D. Vol. I. Text. London: David Nutt.
Miss Kate; or, Confessions of a Caretaker. Frank F. Lowell & Co. 30 cents.
Shields, M. O. Izma; or, Sunshine and Shadow. J. S. Ogilvie.
Smith, C. J. Synonyms Discriminated: A Dictionary of Synonymous Words in the English Language. New ed. Henry Holt & Co. $1.25.
Smith, T. E. V. The City of New York in the Year of Washington's Inauguration, 1789. Printed for the Author.
Sneddon, D. Burns Holograph Manuscripts in the Kilmarnock Monument Museum. With Notes. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $1.50.
Starr, Prof. L. Hygiene of the Nursery. 2d ed. Philadelphia: P. Blakiston, Son & Co. $1.
Stebbins, Genevieve. Society Gymnastics and Voice Culture. Edgar S. Werner.
Temple, Sir R. Lord Lawrence. Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.
The Ideals of the Republic; or, Great Words from Great Americans. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Timsol, R. An Alien from the Commonwealth. Boston: Cupples & Hurd. $1.50.
Tolstoi, Count L. N. My Religion. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 50 cents.
Tuckerman, B. The Life of General Lafayette. 2 vols. Dodd, Mead & Co. $3.
Tuttle, H. Studies in Psychic Science. M. L. Holbrook.
Valentine, Jane. Time's Scythe. Cassell & Co. 50 cents.
Venn, J. The Principles of Empirical or Inductive Logic. Macmillan & Co. $4.50.
Verschoyle, Rev. J. The History of Ancient Civilization: A Hand-Book. Illustrated. D. Appleton & Co. $1.75.
Villari, Prof. P. Life and Times of Girolamo Savonarola. With Portraits and Illustrations. 2 vols. 2d ed. Scribner & Welford. $9.
Waller, M. E. A Cathedral Story. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $1.50.
Waller, M. E. The Rose-Bush of Hildesheim. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $1.50.
Walworth, Mrs. J. H. Baldy's Point. Cassell & Co. 50 cents.
Waring, Mrs. Clark. The Lion's Share. Belford, Clarke & Co. 25 cents.
Warner, Anna. A Servant of the King: Incidents in the Life of the Rev. Geo. Ainslie. John Ireland.
Weir, J. F. The Way: The Nature and Means of Revelation. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.75.
Wentworth—McLellan—Glashan. Algebraic Analysis. Solutions and Exercises Illustrating Fundamental Theorems. Parts I. and II. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.60 each.
Wheeler, W. A. An Explanatory and Pronouncing Dictionary of the Noted Names of Fiction. 19th ed. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Whitney, Prof. J. D. The United States: Facts and Figures Illustrating the Physical Geography of the Country and its Material Resources. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Whittier, J. G. The Tent on the Beach. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Wilde, P. The International Medical Annual and Practitioner's Index. 1889. A Work of Reference for Medical Practitioners. E. B. Treat & Co. $2.75.

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